DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 201 870 CE 028 989

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TITLE Equality in Vocational Programs. General Reference.
INSTITUTION Colorado State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education, Denver. Div. of Occupational Education.
PUB DATE [80]
NOTE 95p.; Some pages will not reproduce well due to small or light print. For related documents see CE 028 988-990.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Access to Education; Affirmative Action; Definitions; Employed Women; Employment Opportunities; Equal Education; Females; Legislation; Males; Nontraditional Occupations; *Policy Formation; Program Implementation; Secondary Education; *Sex Bias; *Sex Fairness; Sex Role; *Sex Stereotypes; Statistical Data; Teacher Role; Two Year Colleges; *Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS *Colorado

ABSTRACT

This document is one of three publications designed to establish guidelines for the elimination of sex bias and sex stereotyping and the establishment of sex fairness in vocational education programs in Colorado. Intended as a general reference, it provides background information about the problem and supplies a rationale for the institution of sex-fair programs. Topics covered include what sex equity is--the educator's role; legislation; national/state data on employment and earnings; definitions; sex equity policies and procedures; sex equity mission statements and goals; and statistics on vocational education students and staff by sex. (KC)

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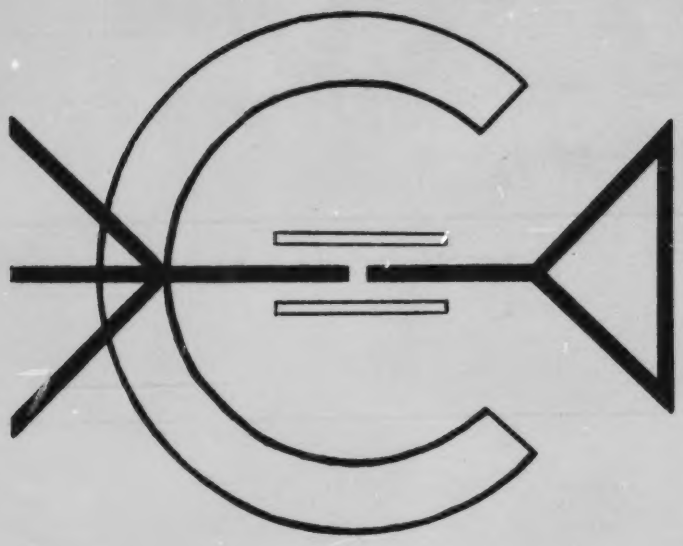
EQUALITY IN VOCATIONAL PROGRAMS



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STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION DIVISION
1979-80
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General Reference
7-1-79-01

ABOUT THE COVER

"C" signifies the State of Colorado.

The symbol, superimposed upon the "C" (Colorado), is a modification of ancient symbols for man and woman.

MAN

WOMAN

The bars above and below the combined symbols for man and woman signify the mathematical symbol which connotes equal value.

Acknowledgment: Mrs. E. Patricia Goggans drafted the original copy of this publication.

Mrs. Kathy Vahling and the Word Processing Center staff for technical assistance, 1979-80.

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INTRODUCTION

I

Equality in Colorado's Vocational Education Programs

IS . . .	IS NOT . . .
A coordinated function of the agency and the indirect responsibility of the entire Occupational Division staff together with all Colorado Vocational Educators.	An independent function, isolated from other agency services and sole responsibility of the "Full-time Personnel" assigned.
Expanding vocational opportunities.	A mandate to expand the paper parade.
Encouraging growth and improvement in vocational programming.	A vendetta against vocational educators.
Assuming an active role in implementing change.	A passive commitment to comply with mandates.

Vocational Education's

Sex Equity Responsibility

Your Responsibility

Public Law 94-482 and the Rules and Regulations adopted pursuant to this Act identify overcoming sex bias, stereotyping and discrimination in vocational education as a major priority for states using federal funds.

Under Section 104(b) of the Act, each state is required to reserve $50,000 and to assign such full-time personnel as may be necessary to assist the State Board in fulfilling such actions as

-- assisting local education agencies in improving opportunities in vocational education
-- reviewing vocational education programs for sex bias and stereotyping
-- reviewing the distribution of grants to assure that interests and needs of all are met without discrimination, bias or stereotyping.

These functions will not be expounded on in this narrative; however, it does seem important to refer to the verbs which are used in describing these functions. The verbs and their general definitions follow:

Create - to originate or cause to exist

Gather - to collect

Analyze - to determine the nature of the whole; examine methodically

Disseminate - to distribute, or promulgate widely

Review - to examine

Monitor - to caution or remind

Assist - to aid or help

All of the above require affirmative action rather than passive avoidance and this approach is reflected in the Plans of Action for Sex Equity in Colorado.

It is essential that all vocational personnel view these mandated functions as

1. an integral part of the overall educational service provided
2. a personal responsibility
3. a supportive measure in expanding opportunities for students
4. an opportunity to respond to labor's needs and societal concerns

In addition to the legislated mandates in vocational education, there has been an increased emphasis on the development of human resources, as evidenced in federal programs for youth and the elderly; there is an intensified search for effective response to some of the more critical needs of contemporary society, e.g., unemployment and underemployment. Labor has established gender-based goals which they must meet. For these and numerous other reasons, vocational education is obliged to move in a forward direction to further the relief of some of these problems. Colorado has committed itself through the Mission assigned the Sex Equity Section, as stated in the Five-year State Plan (1978-82):

> "To assure that all persons who need, want, and can profit from participation in a vocational education program, have equal access regardless of sex."

You have a responsibility in making this a reality.

Source: Taking Sexism Out of Education
HEW Publication No. (OE) 77-01017

WORK, WOMEN, AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

by Corinne H. Rieder
Associate Director for Education and Work
National Institute of Education

Most of the 37 million women who are now working in the United States are occupationally segregated. That is to say, they are victimized by covert discrimination, often unintentional and by socialization practices that effectively limit their careers. What's more, 1.2 million women who will join them this year will enter the same low-pay, low-status jobs that women have traditionally held. In addressing this issue, a fair question would be: Do vocational-education programs contribute to this job and pay segregation? If indeed they do, a further question must be answered: What can be done about it?

The struggle for equity for women in work and training should not be confused with some of the more inflammatory and highly publicized aspects of the feminist movement. Although it may lack the theatrics to win headlines, that struggle is the essence of the movement and a revolution in American society. Any discussion of women and work must begin with the extraordinary and largely unforeseen number of women entering the work force.

In the first 40 years of this century, the labor-force-participation rate of women rose slowly from 20 percent in 1900 to 29 percent in 1940. This situation changed dramatically when, after America entered World War II, women replaced men in many traditionally all-male occupations. Instead of declining after the war, women's entry into the labor market accelerated. In the 25-year period between 1949 and 1974, the number of American women who worked for pay outside the home more than doubled and they continue to enter the labor force at an extraordinary rate, making up 33 percent of the national work force in 1960, 38 percent in 1970, and more than 40 percent in 1976, a figure they were not expected to reach until 1985, according to U.S. Labor Department forecasts made as recently as three years ago. Economists are now saying that half of American women over 16 will be in the work force within 2 or 3 years.

Eli Ginsberg, chairman of the National Commission for Manpower Policy, has gone so far as to call the increase of women in the work force "the single most outstanding phenomenon of our century" and to add that "its long-term implications are absolutely unchartable . . . It will affect women, men, and children, and the cumulative consequences of that will only be revealed in the 21st and 22nd centuries."

There are many factors accounting for this increase of women in the work force. Among them are the availability of jobs, particularly in those rapidly growing fields--sales, clerical, service--where there is a preponderance of women; the rising divorce rates, the declining birth rates,

and later marriages; the increasing number of women who are educated, particularly female college graduates who want to pursue careers; the high inflation rate which makes a second income necessary for a family to survive or to maintain a standard of living; and finally, the women's movement, which has raised social consciousness, made working for pay outside the home more socially acceptable for mothers, and fostered the view that through work women can find additional intellectual and personal fulfillment.

Despite the gains in the number of women employed, the patterns of job segregation that confine women to the traditionally "female" occupations have not changed. Whether one examines specific occupations, occupational groups, or concentration by industry, women are less well distributed in the work force than men. To illustrate, more than 40 percent of all women in the work force are employed in 10 occupations: secretary, retail sales clerk, bookkeeper, private household worker, elementary-school teacher, waitress, typist, cashier, nurse, and seamstress. By comparison, only 20 percent of males are concentrated in the 10 largest occupations employing men.

The occupational segregation of women is also evident in comparing men and women by occupational groups. Nearly 70 percent of women are employed in three occupational groups: clerical (35 percent), service (18 percent), and professional and technical (15 percent). Only 50 percent of men are employed in the largest three occupational groups employing men: skilled crafts (21 percent), professional and technical (14 percent), and managers (14 percent).

Finally, occupational segregation by sex also exists by industries. Sixty-three percent of all women employed in nonagricultural positions are concentrated in services (25 percent), retail (20 percent), and State and local government (18 percent, largely teachers). In comparison, 45 percent of men are concentrated in the three largest industries employing men: manufacturing (19 percent), retail (14 percent), and State and local government (12 percent).

Within occupations, women are also segregated. In medicine, they are overrepresented in pediatrics, psychiatry, anesthesiology, and pathology but grossly underrepresented in surgery and surgical specialties. In addition, they are less likely than men to be in private practice and particularly in private solo practice. In law few women are in the upper echelons of law firms, on judicial benches, or in prominent positions in State and national legislatures. And in education, women account for nearly 85 percent of the Nation's elementary teachers but less than 50 percent of secondary teachers and only 25 percent of college-level teachers. In school administration, the figures are even more striking. Here women account for only 19 percent of all elementary principals, 1 percent of secondary principals, and only one-tenth of 1 percent of school superintendents. Today there are only 150 women who are chief executives of colleges, mostly 2-year and 4-year church-related colleges with small enrollments. Outside education, nearly 1 out of 7 men are in managerial and administrative positions; the comparable ratio for women is 1 out of 20.

The result of women's occupational segregation in the labor market is low wages. This occurs even in the fastest growing industries. For example, women who work full time had median weekly earnings of $124 in 1974. This is about 60 percent of the $204 reported for men. In fact, during the last few years the difference in earnings between men and women widened slightly. Across industries, female earnings as a percentage of male earnings are best in agriculture (83 percent) and public administration (71 percent). They are worst in finance, insurance, and real estate (56 percent), and in manufacturing (57 percent).

Even the economic return associated with greater educational attainment is substantially less for women than for men. In 1974 the median income for a female college graduate who worked full time was $9,771; for men, median earnings were $16,576.

Low wages for women hurt not only women but also children and men. First, women work because of economic need just as men do. Sixty-seven percent of working women are either single, divorced, widowed, separated, or have husbands who earn less than $7,000 per year. In many instances the earnings of wives make the difference between a middle or low standard of living.

Divorce and separation are increasing in our society, and the final impact is often severe. Only 50 percent of women in divorce actions receive alimony or child support. For those, the median total payment is $1,300 per year. The median annual wage for a female-headed family is only $5,116 and nearly 33 percent of such families have incomes below the poverty line. For minorities the problems are even more severe, and more than half of all familites headed by a minority woman have incomes below the poverty level. A General Accounting Office report recently found that the combined average monthly income of women and children receiving both welfare and earned income in 1975 was less than $300 a month; the median income of the man who abandoned them was about $800 a month.

The concentration of women in traditional female occupations is barely changing. In the 10-year period between 1960 and 1970, the number of women in the skilled trades--a matter of utmost importance to vocational educators--increased by 218,000 (from 277,000 to 495,000). In specific trades, the female share of employment increased as follows: for carpenters, from 0.4 to 1.3 percent; for electricians, from 0.7 to 1.8 percent; for plumbers, from 0. to 1.1 percent; for auto mechanics, from 0.4 to 1.4 percent; for painters, from 1.9 to 4.1 percent; for tool- and diemakers, from 0.6 to 2.1 percent; and for machinists, from 1.3 to 3.1 percent. In the health professions, by way of comparison, the proportion of women physicians rose from 7 to 9 percent and women dentists increased from 2.3 to 3.4 percent.

When measured as a rate of increase, women's entry into nontraditional occupations showed impressive growth. For example, the number of women carpenters quadrupled in the decade 1960-70. This rate of growth is encouraging, but the absolute numbers of women in such occupations are so small that it remains to be seen if such growth rates can continue in the future. For the most part women keep crowding the clerical and

service fields, and over the next decade projections indicate that two-thirds of the total increase in employment of women will take place in those traditionally female occupations.

Because vocational-education enrollments faithfully mirror the occupational segregation by sex in the labor force, it may be inferred that vocational education has done little to eliminate occupational segregation. Although women make up 55 percent (6.4 million) of the 11.6 million students enrolled in federally funded vocational education and two-thirds of all secondary vocational enrollments, they are heavily concentrated in home economics (leading mainly to unpaid homemaking roles) and in office and health occupations. For example, about 45 percent of the women receiving vocational education in 1972 were enrolled in consumer and homemaking classes, and women constituted 92 percent of all enrollees in these programs. Twenty-eight percent of all women vocational students were taking training leading to office occupations, and again they made up a substantial percentage (84.7) of all enrollees in such programs.

Conversely, women are underrepresented in trade, industrial, and technical education. In trade and industrial occupations, they make up less than 12 percent of total enrollments and even then they are heavily concentrated in such traditionally female fields as cosmetology, textile production and fabrication, commercial and graphic arts, public services, and supervisory training. In technical occupations, less than 10 percent of the total enrollment is female, and in only one occupational title--scientific data technology--do women make up more than 30 percent of total enrollments.

Thus almost all the women in vocational education are concentrated in a few traditional programs. Change has been slow, but the changes are interesting to review: Between 1969 and 1973, a few women began to enroll in traditionally "male" vocational programs. Although the number of women enrolled in these programs was small, the increase was significant. In air-conditioning courses the number of women enrollees went from 70 to 2,664; in auto body and fender repair, from 7 to 1,082; in auto mechanics, from 906 to 5,299; in carpentry, from 111 to 1,451; in metal occupations, from 1,367 to 3,081; in law-enforcement training, 2,225 to 5,943, and in woodworking occupations, from 592 to 5,373.

Ending occupational sex-role stereotyping and segregation is most certainly in the national interest. Consider the loss to the country when one-half of the population is unable to make a full contribution to the general economic, political, and social welfare because of occupational sex-role stereotyping. By limiting male roles and female roles, men as well as women are affected. If sex-role stereotyping were eliminated, many more service and white-collar opportunities would be open to men. Why shouldn't it be considered appropriate for a man to be an elementary-school teacher, a clerk typist, or a nurse, and for a woman to be a bus driver or a skilled craft worker?

Eliminating the "overcrowding" of women in a narrow band of occupations would tend to equalize incomes between men and women. And that could be an advantage to both sexes. The recent recession brought home to many

men firsthand what it was like to have to live on their wives' income. As men were laid off, they began to look more seriously at their wives' low-income and to question why it was so low.

Vocational educators, as much as any other single group in our society, have both the responsibility and the means to do something about these problems. They are at the critical juncture between school and work; they recruit students, provide them with the knowledge and skills needed for successful job entry, and place them in their first jobs. Their responsibility is to represent the utilitarian purposes of education and to meet society's economic needs. Within the world of work, they are concerned with developing their students' potential to the fullest and placing students in a work environment that is financially and psychologically rewarding. They must stand in the first rank in the battle against occupational and educational segregation.

Vocational educators can take six steps toward combating sex-role stereotyping and occupational segregation. First, they can implement fully the vocational-education section of the Education Amendments of 1976. The Act is unequivocal on the problem of sex bias in vocational education, calling for the assignment of full-time personnel who will: create greater awareness of vocational-education programs and activities that reduce sex stereotyping; gather, analyze, and disseminate data on the status of male and female students and employees; review the distribution of grants by the state boards to ensure that women's needs are being met; review vocational programs for sex bias; monitor all personnel laws prohibiting discrimination; review and submit recommendations in the annual program plan and report; and provide assistance to local-education agencies or other bodies in overcoming sex stereotyping and sex bias.

Clearly, the provisions of this law cannot be fulfilled by lip-service, nor do they invite merely an imposition of still another layer of bureaucracy. The Act is a charter and a mandate under which vocational educators can set their house in order with support and information from higher levels of government.

As a second step, vocational educators can change recruitment and admission practices and policies. Over the next few years, the Office of Civil Rights in the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare will be carefully examining enrollments in vocational schools, courses, and programs. It will be joined by the Lawyer's Committee for Equal Rights Under the Law, funded by the Carnegie and Ford Foundations, which will be looking at the same problem. Recruitment policies--where and how prospective students are recruited--will most likely be a special focus of these investigations.

A third effort vocational educators can make is toward improving guidance and counseling efforts. Counselors have a particularly important role. They can either reinforce sex-role stereotypes that narrow occupational choices or they can encourage students to think more broadly about their educational and occupational decisions. For example, standardized tests, particularly career-interest inventories, should

be interpreted in ways that are fair to both sexes and used as tools to expand the career possibilities explored by both girls and boys. Counselors will be made aware of these problems and of the ways they can bring about change only through in-service and pre-service training.

The education and work group of the National Institute of Education has funded the development of many excellent materials that are now available for such training, including Sex Fairness in Career Guidance: A Learning Kit, New Career Options for Women: A Councelor's Sourcebook, and two films with teachers' and students' guides.

Fourth, vocational educators can revise curricular materials and teaching practices. An NIE-funded study found that most career-education materials examined were sex-biased. The Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, the contractor for this study, developed a simple checklist to assess sex bias and some specific ways to counter it. The checklist is available from the Educational Products Information Exchange Institute, 463 West Street, New York, NY 10014.

A fifth strategy would be to increase the number of female vocational administrators and qualified women teachers in male-dominated courses and male teachers in female-dominated fields. Although women faculty dominate the traditionally female vocational subjects, they are all but absent in other vocational programs--agricultural, technical, trade, and industrial. At administrative levels, women are present in only token numbers. There is only one woman State director of vocational education. Fewer than 20 percent of the national and State vocational education advisory council members are women. Training and placement programs need to be mounted immediately to increase the pool of qualified women and to see that they are placed in teaching and administrative positions commensurate with their skills and experience. The development of such programs should be a major role for the new National Center for Vocational Education.

Finally, vocational educators can continue important research and development efforts on women in vocational education. Continued research and development is sorely needed not only on the problems facing women in choosing and entering careers and in progressing in them, but also on interventions that will ease their transition from school to work and make more successful their later labor-market experiences. Four specific areas need immediate attention. One is the impact of working women on family life. As women take an equal share of the high-paying jobs, two questions will demand answers: Will the income difference between poor and better-off families increase? Will male unemployment increase? Studies will also be needed on nonprofessional women who make up over 80 percent of women in the labor force. Since the 1920s, research in this field has declined to a point where in recent years there has not been a single book devoted to the social and economic problems of these women.

A third subject that needs more research is avocational interests, which, studies already suggest, can be important to people's career choices. Vocational educators should be working with elementary and

junior high-school students in the schools and through youth groups (4H, YMCA and YWCA, Girl and Boy Scouts) to broaden and deepen the opportunities to explore nontraditional roles. Boys in particular need to feel more comfortable in helping roles, while much work needs to be done in encouraging girls to assume leadership positions and better use their mechanical and technical aptitudes. Further, vocational educators need to work more closely with parents to inform them of trade and technical job opportunities so that they will not inadvertently discourage their youngsters from pursuing nontraditional avocational and vocational interests.

Since vocational educators are directly concerned with the educational goal of preparing individuals for work, they have an obligation to work toward eliminating the negative effects of practices in the home and early school that lock individuals into traditional male or female stereotyped occupational roles. Their efforts should also be extended against those policies and practices of the work community which overtly or covertly discriminate against either sex.

One NIE response to intervening in the socialization process is a new children's television series, now under development at the public television station in Los Angeles. The series, aimed at children in grades 4-6 and their parents and teachers, is intended to reduce the limiting effect that sex roles may have on the development of interests and preferences, which in turn affect educational and occupational decisions.

Vocational educators should also take the lead in expanding cooperative relationships with unions and employers in order to help women find jobs and take part in exploring career possibilities, especially in nontraditional fields.

A third way vocational educators can intervene is by exercising leadership. They could take the lead in prodding Federal, State, and local officials to engage in public discussion of important issues relevant to the social revolution now taking place. They could, for instance, support the establishment of a National Commission on Women and Work, which would place special emphasis on the needs and aspirations of America's nonprofessional female worker--the clerk, the saleswoman, and the service and blue-collar woman--those who make up over 80 percent of working women.

One reason for such a national commission is that these women, who are vocational education's constituency, have largely been ignored in most public discussions on the role of women today. The focus during the last decade has almost exclusively been on the middle-class, upwardly mobile educated woman. The voice of women's liberation was her voice and spoke her need to fulfill herself, to compete and to succeed in a man's world. These voices broke the barriers by writing the books, making the speeches, filming the shows, and editing the magazines that have made her middle-class male counterpart begin to understand her needs and ambitions.

It is time for the voice of her less educated sister to be heard. Although a national commission is no panacea and lacks the luster of a

presentation like Roots, it can generate public awareness of the non-professional, working woman's plight; it can stimulate legislative and administrative initiatives that address her special problems; it can identify research and development activities that might help her break out of existing patterns of job stereotyping and improve her own self-image.

The most important and difficult single barrier in eliminating sex stereotyping and segregation is attitude. Most women and men have at one time or another believed that there are occupations that should be held by only one sex, that women are inherently less competent than men, that women cannot successfully supervise men or other women, that if women with young children go to work the family will inevitably disintegrate.

Fifteen years ago the civil-rights movement faced similar attitudinal barriers in the struggle for equity under the law. Those barriers by and large have been toppled, revealing how flimsy and meaningless they were and how impotent against the forces of learning, living, and working. Dare women hope that the attitudinal barriers to their equity are similarly vulnerable?

President Carter told the United Nations General Assembly: "The basic thrust of human affairs points toward a more universal demand for fundamental human rights. The United States has a historical birthright to be associated with this process."

Certainly sex fairness is a fundamental human right.

SBPG 17 dl

WARNING: THE MALE SEX ROLE MAY BE DANGEROUS TO YOUR HEALTH

James Harrison
Albert Einstein College of Medicine

The growing differential in life expectancy between men and women in the United States in the twentieth century is noted. Two explanatory perspectives are identified, the biogenetic and the psychosocial. The contemporary emerging analysis of the male role is related to the psychosocial perspective. Methodological problems in evaluating alternative perspectives are identified. Evidence for both views is examined, and it is concluded that the best available evidence confirms the psychosocial perspective that sex-role socialization accounts for the larger part of men's shorter life expectancy.

In 1900, life expectancy in the United States was 48.3 years for women and 46.3 years for men. In 1975, it was 76.5 years for women and 68.7 years for men (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1976). During this 75-year period life expectancy for both men and women increased by more than 20 years, while the difference increased from two years in 1900 to 7.8 years at the present time, consistently favoring women.

The gains in life expectancy for both men and women can be attributed to better nutrition and improved health care technology. But how can the difference between men's and women's life expectancies and the consistent increase in the size of this difference during the twentieth century be explained?

Two general hypotheses can be distinguished, which for the purpose of this paper can be respectively designated as a biogenetic and a psychosocial perspective. The former, identified with Montague (1953), attributes men's greater mortality to genetic factors. The latter, most systematically articulated by Jourard (1971), attributes men's greater mortality in large part to lethal aspects of the male role. The goals of this paper are the evaluation of these two perspectives, and the assessment of male role behavior for life expectancy.

In comparison to females, there is for males a higher perinatal and early childhood death rate, a higher rate of congenital birth defects, a greater vulnerability to recessive sex-linked disorders, a higher accident rate for males during childhood and all subsequent ages, a higher incidence of behavioral and learning disorders, a higher suicide rate, and a higher metabolism rate which may result in greater energy expenditure and a consequent failure to conserve physical resources. In the biogenetic perspective, this broad range of reported physical, psychological, and social sex differences is interpreted as a direct or mediated consequence

Journal of Social Issues, Volume 34, Number 1, 1978

of genetic differences. These differences are understood to be causally and cumulatively related, and to result in a higher mortality rate for men. There is a quality of inevitability in this perspective--biology is seen as destiny with a vengeance--but in this case the male is understood to be in the less favored position. Taken all together, and without consideration of other factors, this perspective constitutes a plausible explanatory system for an array of apparently correct data.

In contrast, the alternative psychosocial perspective hypothesizes that the greater mortality rate of men is at least partially a consequence of the demands of the male role. The variety of reported sex differences cited in support of the biogenetic perspective are not necessarily challenged, but the interpretation of causal relationships among them is understood to be more complex. There is no single fully developed exposition of this view, but rather several complementary variants which suggest a number of ways in which male role expectations have a deleterious effect on men's life, and possibly contribute to men's higher mortality rate. One of the complexities of this sociocultural hypothesis is the problem of specifying what is meant by "male role expectations." This is no simple task.

Defining the Male Role

In the newer, emerging view, average differences between men and women are recognized but thought to be smaller, less clearly biologically based, and less socially significant (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Men and women do acquire sex-typed personality characteristics, but this is understood to derive from social expectation rather than innate psychological need. Persons highly sex-typed in psychological characteristics are increasingly understood to be disadvantaged rather that advantaged (Bem 1974, 1975). In this view, the critical event in psychosexual development is the learning of gender identity (Money & Ehrhardt, 1972) in early childhood, rather than sex identity. In distinct contrast to the traditional view, it is assumed that the psychological needs of individuals do not account for the traditionally prescribed differences in social and family roles between men and women.

Returning specifically to a consideration of the male role, Pleck (1976b) has emphasized the contradictions and confusion which have emerged in attempts to define the male role.

Brannon (1976) has provided the most detailed and systematic attempt to delineate the various components of the male role. While noting its elusive quality and the apparent contradictions within it, he abstracts four themes or dimensions which seem to be valid across all specific manifestations of stereotyped male role behavior. He characterizes these components in four short phrases:

1. No Sissy Stuff: the need to be different from women.
2. The Big Wheel: the need to be superior to others.
3. The Sturdy Oak: the need to be independent and self-reliant.
4. Give 'Em Hell: The need to be more powerful than others, through violence if necessary.

Notably all four of these themes and the resultant behavior patterns they encourage involve self-evaluation in terms of an external standard rather than the expression of an intrinsic human value which can be affirmed in itself. The first constitutes a negative definition, which ironically defines the male role as a residual category of behaviors and characteristics not expressed by women. As such it can be understood as complementary to the fourth theme, insofar as the display of violence is one means of repudiating characteristics more often associated with women. The second involves achievement at the expense of others, and the third involves isolation from mutually interdependent relationships.

Clearly men express more positive and socially valued characteristics than described by these four themes. The attempt to define a normative role specific for only one sex necessarily results in a distorted model of human potential. The fiction that men and women are opposites is perpetuated. The recognition that men and women are essentially similar in what constitutes their humanity while manifesting a range of individual differences both within and between each sex is ignored. It is consequently possible to understand why the attempt to conform to male role expectations has negative consequences for men.

Those who have argued for the psychosocial perspective in understanding men's lower life expectancy have drawn on these themes with differing emphases. Jourard (1971) assumed that men's basic psychological needs are essentially the same as women's; all persons need to be known and to know, to be depended upon and to depend, to be loved and to love, and to find purpose and meaning in life. The socially prescribed male role, by contrast, requires men to be noncommunicative, competitive and nongiving, inexpressive, and to evaluate life success in terms of external achievements rather than personal and interpersonal fulfillment. All men are caught in a double bind. If a man fulfills the prescribed role requirements, his basic human needs go wanting; if these needs are met, he may be considered, or consider himself, unmanly. Jourard emphasized the contradiction between these basic psychological needs of human beings and the requirements of the male role. He contended that if these needs are not met, persons risk emotional disorder, they may ignore somatic signals with a resultant failure to seek health care, possibly develop greater vulnerability to illness, and even lose the will to live.

Going beyond Jourard's general assessment, Rosenfeld (1972) has argued that the maturational process by which boys become men has been made into an achievement or a task rather than a natural unfolding of human potentiality. By what criteria can a boy ever know that he has fulfilled the requirements of the male role? Adults are of little help in clarifying expectations for children, because they too are confused by apparent uncertainties about and inconsistency within male role expectations. Hartley (1959) long since observed that unclear sex-role expectations for children are a major source of anxiety. If severe enough and persistent, such anxiety may lead to serious emotional difficulty which may cause, or contribute to, behavioral and learning disorders.

One means which children utilize to cope with anxiety derived from sex-role expectations is the development of compensatory masculinity (Tiller, 1967). Compensatory masculine behaviors may range from the innocent to the insidious. Boys naturally imitate the male models available to them and can be observed overemphasizing male gait and verbal patterns. But if the motive is a need to prove the right to male status, more destructive behavioral patterns may result, and persist into adulthood. Boys are often compelled to take risks which result in accidents; older youth often begin smoking and drinking as a symbol of adult male status (Farrell, 1974); automobiles are often utilized as an extension of male power; and some men find confirmation of themselves in violence toward those whom they do not consider in conformity to the male role (Churchill, 1967). A convincing case has been made by both Fasteau (1974) and Komisar (1976) that readiness to settle international conflict by war rather than diplomacy is a function of prevalent male role expectations.

In addition, the requirements of the male work role have also been implicated as a cause of men's greater mortality. It has been suggested that executive stress and/or the competition to get ahead may result in greater vulnerability for men (Slobogin, 1977).

DATA RELEVANT TO THE BIOGENETIC AND PSYCHOSOCIAL HYPOTHESES

Madigan's early study (1957) remains influential in defense of the biogenetic perspective because its claimed empirical basis gave it evidential status the psychosocial hypothesis has only recently begun to amass. The current debate is rightly focused on data about rates of conception, birth, and death which can be attributed to genetic causes, on the one hand, and data about rates of death which can be correlated with sex-role related behavior.

In sum, the genetic evidence suggests that the male fetus and the male neonate are more vulnerable prior to the time when sociocultural factors could exert an influence sufficient to account for a significant amount of the variance. These innate factors, however, are not sufficient to reduce the sex ratio to parity, since parity is not reached until early adulthood, the time of expected procreation. Subsequent to childhood the excess of the male over the female death rate cannot be attributed to biological differences between the sexes.

The greater in utero and perinatal mortality of males, along with the slightly higher mortality of males at later ages due to congenital anomalies, suggests the operation of a biological factor which may contribute to the overall higher mortality rate of men. In the absence of evidence to demonstrate the operation of social factors, a biologically reductionistic explanation appears plausible. For this reason it is essential to examine the soundest data available for areas in which the possible effect of social factors can be discerned.

TABLE 1
Ratio of Male to Female Deaths
(1973 Data)

Age in Years	Male:Female
Under 1	136:100
1-4	132:100
5-14	165:100
15-24	287:100
25-34	221:100
35-44	168:100
45-54	173:100
55-64	183:100
65-74	149:100
75-84	97:100
85 +	61:100

Note: Calculated from data in USDHEW, 1975.

Current Adult Mortality

Mortality data, examined in terms of sex differences in specific causes of death, provide the soundest evidence for the psychosocial hypothesis. In his early study, Madigan (1957) attempted to determine why men had not profited from technological advances in health care to the same extent as women. He posed the question globally: Is the greater mortality of men a consequence of role strain of biological factors related to sex?

Conrad (1962) extended the analysis of the determinants of differential mortality rates by specifically considering sociological factors. He identified a variety of means by which male role behaviors may contribute to the higher mortality rates of men: the higher accidental death rate at all ages, the greater physical and emotional strain of the male economic role, and the greater exposure to industrial hazards and contaminants. He also recognized the possible existence of intervening male role related variables which would not be immediately apparent from the specific cause to which death was attributed. Though Conrad was not able to identify these variables, correlations between demographic factors and the mortality rates within specific populations led him to conclude that socioculturally determined differences in sex-role behaviors are relevant to an adequate understanding of sex differentials in mortality, but that specific conclusions were not warranted on the basis of the data available.

The subsequent discussion of mortality data presented here is indebted to Ingrid Waldron (1976) and Susan Johnson (Waldron & Johnson, 1976). Working from 1967 vital statistics, Waldron and Johnson focused attention on sex differences in causes of death by ranking all causes accounting from more than 1% of all deaths in descending order according to the ratio of male to female deaths. In their presentation, the first seven categories and the ratio of male to female deaths in each were:

1. Malignant neoplasm of the respiratory system (5.9:1).
2. Other bronchopulmonic disease (4.9:1).
3. Motor vehicle accidents (2.8:1).
4. Suicide (2.7:1).
5. Other accidents (2.4:1).
6. Cirrhosis of the liver (2.0:1).
7. Arteriosclerotic heart disease, including coronary disease (2.0:1).

Furthermore all seven categories were shown to have sex-role behavior correlates, e.g., the greater incidence and frequency of smoking, drinking, and propensity toward risk-taking and violence among men.

The present discussion utilizes Waldron's interpretive framework, but is based on more recent data (Table 2). The criteria for inclusion of categories of cause of death in Table 2 were: (a) the 15 major headings defined in the Vital Statistics as leading causes of death; (b) following Waldron, all subcategories which account for more than 1% of deaths; (c) subcategories which have high sex ratios.

There are several significant points of contrast with Waldron's presentation. The data in Table 2 are ranked by percentage of deaths attributed to each cause, rather than by rank of the sex ratio, and it is not possible to know how all Waldron's categories compare with those here. In addition, Waldron omitted entirely the cerebrovascular category which accounts for 10.9% of all deaths in our (1972) data and which in all subcategories accounts for more female than male deaths. The male to female ratio for arteriosclerosis is reversed in the more recent data. And finally, homicides accounted for more than 1% of all deaths in 1972, with a male to female ratio of 4.16:1, which would have qualified this cause of death for second place had the data been ranked as in Waldron's presentation.

Examination of the differential mortality rates alone reveals nothing about the antecedents of specific causes of death. The importance of Waldron's analysis is her discussion of these antecedents in relationship to sex-role related behaviors. Fulfilling the requirements of the male role is characterized as an achievement, not simply the consequence of natural growth and development; it is often bought at the cost of risk and stress. Anxiety about failure to achieve may result in compensatory behaviors designed to show outward conformity to the role. Compensatory behaviors involve risk taking of various kinds which may lead to accidents, exhibition of violence, excessive consumption of alcohol, and smoking. Reciprocally, anxiety about failure to achieve male role requisites may result in denial of dimensions of human experience more sterotypically associated with women's role. This denial may result in the suppression of gentleness and emotion. These specific male behaviors seem to be significant antecedents to all the major causes of death in which male death rates exceed those of women by a ratio of 2:1, a convention established by Waldron as a criterion of a large sex difference.

TABLE 2
Causes of Death
(1972 Data)

	Male/Female Ratio	Percent of All Deaths
Diseases of the Heart	1.35	38.5
Acute myocardial infarction	1.78	18.2
Chronic ischemic heart disease	1.04	16.3
Other	1.36	1.9
Malignant Neoplasms	1.26	17.6
Bucal cavity and pharynx	2.65	0.4
Digestive organs	1.20	4.9
Respiratory system	4.07	3.9
Breasts	0.01	1.6
Genital organs	0.87	2.2
Urinary organs	2.19	0.8
Other	1.17	2.1
Lymphatic and hemotopoietic tissue	1.25	1.0
Cerebrovascular Diseases	0.85	10.9
Cerebral hemorrhage	0.94	1.9
Cerebral thrombosis	0.82	2.9
Other	0.84	6.1
Accidents	2.35	5.9
Motor vehicle	2.62	2.9
Other	2.12	3.0
Influenza and Pneumonia	1.31	3.2
Diabetes Mellitus	0.73	2.0
Certain Causes in Infancy	1.48	1.7
Cirrhosis of the Liver	2.03	1.7
Arteriosclerosis	0.77	1.7
Bronchitis, Emphysema, Asthma	3.48	1.6
Suicide	2.57	1.3
Homicide	4.16	1.0
Congenital Anomalies	1.20	0.8
Nephritis and Nephrosis	1.27	0.4
Peptic Ulcer	2.04	0.4
All other	1.34	11.6

Note: Calculated from data in USDHEW, 1976.
* Rate per 100 thousand population.

A similar line of research on the effects of executive stress on mortality has not been convergent (Metropolitan Life, Note 2, Note 3). In contrast to persons who exhibit Type A behavior, corporate executives were found to be at less risk than population norms. Interpretation of these findings is hazardous. Work stress may be offset by job satisfaction, financial rewards, and better health care. In fact, the evidence suggests that stress interacts with social class (Dohrenwend, 1973), with destructive consequences only when it results in instability in and loss of control over the life situation of the individual.

CONCLUSIONS

A critical reading of presently available evidence confirms that male role socialization contributes to the higher mortality rate of men. Recognizing the multiplicity of variables within the chain of causality, Waldron (1976) estimates that three-fourths of the difference in life expectancy can be accounted for by sex-role related behaviors which contribute to the greater mortality of men. She estimates that one-third of the differences can be accounted for by smoking, another one-sixth by Coronary Prone behavior, and the remainder by a variety of other causes. Using more precise statistical techniques to analyze difference in male/ female mortality rates in terms of antecedents to specific causes of death, Retherford (1972) attributes half of the differences to smoking alone.

Waldron's estimate that three-fourths of the current 7.8 year difference in life expectancy is attributable to socialization is plausible and concordant with the difference in life expectancy at the turn of the century of approximately 2 years. The evidence we have reviewed suggests that this portion of the variance may be attributable to biogenic determinants. However, any biogenetic factor is exacerbated by male role socialization. Parents assume that male children are tougher, when in fact they may be to some degree more vulnerable than female children. Male children are also more likely to develop a variety of behavioral difficulties such as hyperactivity, stuttering, dyslexia, and learning disorders of various kinds. Maccoby and Jacklin's (1974) review of research on childhood sex differences lends little support to the view that these observed sex differences are genetically determined. Insofar as they may be biogenetically predisposed, certainly the development of more functional behavioral patterns should be the goal of the socialization process. Male socialization into aggressive behavioral patterns seems clearly related to the higher death rate from external causes. Male anxiety about the achievement of masculine status seems to result in a variety of behaviors which can be understood as compensatory.

During the period in which the ratio between men's and women's life expectancy has worsened, social policy in the United States, especially in preparation for war and national defense, has been overwhelmingly directed toward reinforcement and support of the stereotyped male role (Filene, 1974; Fasteau, 1974). Recognition of the lethal aspects of the male role has had to await the emergence of a critical theory of sex-role socialization free of the ideological commitment to the status quo. This has been inspired by a critique of traditional psychological research inspired by the feminist movement (Harrison, 1975) and has been focally articulated for men's roles by Pleck (1976b).

With the psychosocial perspective, sex differences, apart from those specifically associated with reproductive function, are understood to be smaller, less biologically based, and less socially significant. This is demonstrated by the greater range of difference within each sex than the average differences between the sexes. Differences in learned personality traits are understood not to be a necessary function of the development of sexual identity, but rather a consequence of social expectation. Finally, learning only stereotypically sex-typed traits is understood to be a handicap rather than an asset.

The old psychology of sex roles serves as a rationale for the inevitability of traditional psychological sex differences and the traditional division of family, work, and social responsibilities. The new psychology provides not only the basis for reassessment of psychological characteristics and social arrangements, but also a basis for the reinterpretation of many previously observed sex differences (Pleck, 1976a, Miller, 1976).

Contemporary research has failed to demonstrate the existence of important intrinsic psychological differences between men and women. However, research on sex-role stereotypes demonstrates the persistence of the belief in such differences in personality traits (Rosencrantz, Vogel, Bee, Brovermann, and Brovermann, 1968). This continuing belief brings to mind W. I. Thomas's famous dictum: "If men (people) define situations as real, they are real in their consequences" (1928, p. 572). It is time that men especially begin to comprehend that the price paid for belief in the male role is shorter life expectancy. The male sex role will become less hazardous to our health only insofar as it ceases to be defined as opposite to the female role, and comes to be defined as one genuinely human way to live.

Ironically, Madigan, whose work (1957) continues to have an undeserved credibility in discussions of this issue, supported the best possibility of extending male life expectancy. For him, as for many in our society, a technological solution was more probable than the "profound cultural revolution" which he recognized the psychosocial thesis to require. But it is precisely that profound cultural revolution which is our need. The best hope for both men and women is overcoming a view of development which turns maturation into a polarized sex-typed achievement.

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(6/22/79)

*Excerpts from article published in American Education, July, 1977.

CHANGING MALE ROLES*
By James Harrison**

Every new social movement inevitably churns up a measure of apprehension and uncertainty, and the struggle for equal rights between the sexes is no exception. Initially there is no agreement about the social consequences of full equality of opportunity for women and men. Nor are men clear about what exactly is in it for them were they to respond positively to the changing sex roles revolution.

Some questions seek answers: Will women's gain be men's loss? What will be the consequences for children? Will men have to give up options for certain jobs? If yes, what will they do instead? Do men have it "so good" now that changes most likely will be detrimental to them? Will the division of labor and traditional role expectations in families have to change?

The presence of fear or anger among men about the changes that are taking place hardly needs documentation. Many men are confused. Some are defensive. Others are disdainful and condescending. Many individuals may have to make adjustments in their role expectations, especially if these expectations stand in the way of the rights and prerogatives of others. And the notion that women's gain need not be men's loss requires an assessment of "gain" and "loss" in terms of the total range of human values, and not exclusively in economic or political terms. Woman need not lose the special protection they have had; instead, men can be extended similar protection against exploitation. No one need be required to give up an individually chosen lifestyle. Couples or families should generally be able to retain their role patterns or division of labor if these patterns are mutually acceptable to all family members, although exceptions are conceivable as, say, in the case of preferential hiring. Together men and women can share the political and economic responsibility for a society that will affirm as its goal the creation of conditions under which maximum human development for all citizens is possible.

Western culture is "patriarchal," that is, characterized by male domination over women. As a framework for analysis, four separate but interrelated dimensions of the social reality in which patriarchy is expressed and by which it is perpetuated--institutions, ideology, language, and academic scholarship--need to be examined and clarified insofar as they serve to inhibit social change and reinforce the impact traditional culture has upon men who are beginning to work toward a more egalitarian society.

Institutional Sexism

One of the important insights of the civil rights movement is the recognition that racism is not simply personal, but that it is sustained and perpetuated by social structures. The same applies to sexism. Just as the racist phenomenon was labeled "institutional racism," so too may the social structures of a

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patriarchy be labeled "institutional sexism." Every major institution in our society is currently dominated by men: government, law, education, health care, defense, entertainment, religion, industry, or any other sphere of activity. Areas dominated by women, such as primary teaching or nursing, exist only within the context of male-dominated institutions. This domination constitutes objective discrimination, most flagrantly against women, more subtly against men. It results in a lack of guarantees of individual rights to women. It makes access to male-controlled professions more difficult for women. But it also stigmatizes men who wish to work in areas traditionally considered within "women's sphere"--child care and nursing, for example. To understand what sustains institutional sexism, other dimensions of the patriarchal society must be considered.

An illustration of sex-role ideology in action may be useful. A young father was seen bouncing a child on his shoulders as he walked to his car. Both were happily laughing and talking when suddenly the father froze and was overheard to say, "Oh, I forgot--you're a girl." He put her down gently on the sidewalk, and when she began to cry, he looked dismayed, probably thinking: "How like a girl to cry." The father brought pain to his child and to himself because he is a victim of sex-role ideology.

Sexist Language

It is well known that the English language lacks certain words to refer exclusively to both men and women. Masculine words and pronouns are used generically to refer to both men and women simultaneously. In the sentence, "A good student always does his homework," the masculine pronoun is used even though the reference includes girls. And many persons insist that "Peace on earth, good will toward men" is understood universally to be inclusive and that to ask for linguistic reform is tantamount to attacking the beauty of our historic linguistic traditions. Others say that half of our fellow humans should not be exluded by insisting on "the brotherhood of man."

Who is right? The contents of the Constitution and its first ten Amendments make no explicit references to men and women, male or female. The terms "people," "person," or "citizen" along with the appropriate masculine pronouns are used. Did the authors and early interpreters assume that these terms were used in the generic sense to include both males and females? Certainly women inhabitants of the new country were expected to obey the laws of the federal goverment and the several states. On the other hand, the notion that women would vote or hold office was so far from possible in the 18th century that it was not even felt necessary to address it. In practice it was simply assumed that active participation in government was an exclusive male prerogative.

Sexism in Academic Scholarship

"Know thyself. Presume not God to scan; The proper study of mankind is man." In his appeal for humanistic sholarship in the 18th century, perhaps Alexander Pope intended his generic language to include women. Nonetheless, the study of man has in large measure been the study of males. Feminist scholars have documented that the study of literature and the arts has often neglected or underestimated the contributions of women. Similarly, historical scholarship has been shown

most frequently to be an account of the acts of men. To discover the presence of such bias in the social sciences--the very disciplines that seek objective understanding about human beings, their cultures, and their social organizations--is of even greater surprise.

In sum, patriarchial society is expressed objectively through institutions, justified subjectively by ideology, transmitted through language, and perpetuated by academic scholarship. In spite of all this, seeds of transformation have been present that have enabled some persons to envision alternative possibilities.

The Emergence of a Men's Movement

Men recognized their own need for the sort of close community that developed in CR (Consciousness-Raising) groups and wished to have this experience for themselves. Several groups of men began to meet during the later 1960s. As the numbers of men sympathetic to the women's movement and aware of the need of examination of men's roles have grown, broader bases of communication and action have emerged. Individual CR groups have planned local conferences, which have in turn spawned new CR groups. Larger, more loosely connected groups of men have founded men's resource centers. Several periodicals about men's issues are now published, and books offering systematic analysis of men's roles have begun to appear.

Men's CR groups vary in size, duration, focus, and value for the participants. There are nevertheless common themes which characterize them. One is the attempt to understand the individual, unique, and highly personal events and experiences which led to each member's socialization as an adult male. Most men's groups give close attention to tendencies of individual men to dominate, to monopolize time, to avoid emotion, and to compete with each other.

Human beings' need for approval and affirmation has often locked men into role conformity out of fear that expression of individuality would bring ridicule and stigmatization. CR groups have given many men a new source of support, one that has encouraged self-expression and the deepening of understanding of personal relationships with both men and women.

Men's Resource Centers and What They Do

In the last few years men's centers have developed in most big cities and many university towns. In contrast to CR groups, which focus on growth in personal awareness and continuity of group identity, men's centers are more activitist in orientation and serve as a base for a variety of divergent programs.

Men's centers sponsor events that tend to correct the imbalance of traditional sex roles. For example, some hold bake sales for charity, pot luck suppers prepared for and by the men, and provide child care for feminists' meetings. Others hold workshops to re-educate men in adult living skills. Most men's centers have counseling groups for men in crisis.

Recently, a Men's Awareness Network (MAN) has been formed to serve as a national communication channel among men, and between men's centers. Local centers will

publish a national newsletter on a rotation basis, including theoretical articles, personal stories, reviews and notices of relevant books, and announcements of meetings and conferences.

What Men Are Learning

From analysis of the women's movement and closer examination of personal experience, some men are becoming convinced that growing up did not have to be as difficult as it was. They are taking a hard look at the world around them, and are making some critical observations. These observations are not judgmental; no one is being blamed. Rather, these criticisms are based on a recognition of a destructive and erroneous assumption at the heart of the socialization process in our culture: that the traditional male role is the norm for organizational life, and that boys have to be bent, shaped, cut down to size, or stretched out to fit it.

Author Robert Brannon has abstracted four core elements of the male role which seem to be present regardless of individual variations in the way they are expressed. First, the clearly understood rule is "No sissy stuff." The problem in attempting to live up to this standard is that it constitutes a negative definition of manhood, rooted in the secondary status of women in our culture. Those emotions, throughts, or interests of an individual male child that have been labeled "women's stuff" have to be hidden or repressed.

The second element is the struggle for status, to be "The Big Wheel." The problem is not the emphasis on accomplishment, but rather the emphasis on external validation and competition with others. To achieve success a boy has to be the biggest or the strongest; men have to be the most powerful, the most competent, the richest.

The third element is the image of the "Sturdy Oak." Men learn that they must always cope, can never admit defeat, and must never express emotions of hurt, sadness, and grief. No quivers are permitted in the "stiff upper lip." To do so is to "lose your cool," and by implication the status of being a man.

So far the prescription is: be the best, no failures, and no women stuff--three impossible standards. The fourth element provides a way out if a man should experience some inner doubts: "Give 'em hell." This aspect of the male role sometimes is expressed in violence toward women and other men, sometimes in loud and ostentations braggadocio, sometimes in the subtle intellectual putdown. It may be symbolized in images of male roughness: swagger, smoking, and drinking to create an image, motorcycles and cars used as weapons, intentional roughness in sports, all boiling down to the assertion, always with a competitive and sometimes with a sadistic flavor, "I can dominate."

Many contemporary men are rejecting the tyranny of the male role, but this is not for boys and adolescent men who continue to model themselves on what they hold to be the best images of adults as they see and understand them. Adolescents have no alternatives until adults provide alternative models. These models must be made on a different conception of the possibilities for men. A first step is a rejection of the sex-role ideology that sustains traditional sex-role expectations. The polarization of human characteristics into two separate spheres marked "masculine" and "feminine" is a fiction. At worst this has produced men

who are brittle, rigid, and violent; at best, men with damaged self-esteem and hampered creativity.

Men in School

Looking back, men may ask why they could not have been taught to help one another, why teachers were not more sensitive to the fact that children can learn only in secure situations. Teachers did not intend to humiliate children, but they often assumed that recognition of inadequacies would spur the child to achieve. Many men recall being frozen in anxiety when asked to solve an equation or conjugate a verb. Failure left them with the feeling they could accomplish nothing. Few were assured that it was no disgrace to make an error; most report that, in retrospect, they learned less, both physically and academically, than they could have if they had not been made so anxious by the constant pressure to compete.

Men also remember that there were some things they should not know. To have anything to do with "feminine" subjects would endanger a boy's tenuous claim on the "masculine" label. Of course, school did not teach this prejudice. It came along with earliest socialization, with language, with unconsciously inculcated values, with observations about who really does the "important" work in the grown-up world. But school did little to counteract the stereotypes, and so there was little or no opportunity for boys to learn about such things as nutrition, shopping, cooking, clothing, and child care--a gross oversight in view of the number of men who don't marry or who are divorced or widowers.

Spelling out the implications of these observations is a complex task that will require cooperation and collaboration among men and between men and women. Those who have thought carefully about their experience agree that there is need for serious educational reform that would recognize all knowledge as appropriate subject matter for all human beings and would permit and encourage the expression of a vast range of individual variation among all students, both men and women.

Men Are Teachers

A hundred years ago the school was part of the male world. Today the majority of administrators and principals--the positions of traditional power and prestige--are still men. However, a majority of high-school teachers are women, as are an even larger proportion of elementary-school teachers.

Several years ago the greater learning difficulties of some boys were attributed to the relative absence of men in the classroom, and the suggestion that more men be "feminized," for teacher roles implied that men who taught were "effeminate."

Recent advocacy for more male elementary teachers has emphasized that teaching small children does not "feminize" men, and that elementary teachers are indeed "real men." This emphasis may be a delayed reaction to the previous unfortunate conceptualization, or perhaps a protest against the pervasive sexism in the culture. Nonetheless, it would be an unfortunate consequence if male elementary-school teachers had to develop "compensatory masculinity" to survive in a field that is currently staffed predominantly by women. Sexism cannot transform

sexism; male teachers trying to provide their "masculinity" could be even more destructive than unbalanced staffing patterns. The valid reasons for men to be in elementary teaching is their wish to be there, their capacity to do the job, and their ability to model equality in a still sexist society.

Fathers Are Parents, Too

It was once thought that only mothers could care for infant children. This was considered "natural" and usually attributed to the difference in hormonal balance between men and women. Such an obvious "fact" hardly required research. Recent studies suggest that the salient factor in arousing in parents protective and caring feelings for their child is the dependency of the child and not the hormones of the adult, posing the question whether most men have not lived their lives with "infantile" deprivation because a patriarchal society has assumed that they are incompetent to care for babies. Slowly the recognition is growing that men are not incapable of being fully competent parents, but that sex-role ideology has prevented them from realizing these possibilities--to everyone's detriment.

Fathers are still discouraged from taking responsibility for children in some families. The continuing sex-role ideology makes it difficult for them to gain custody of their children in divorce cases. Courts and their investigative officers often assume that men are unable to carry out parently responsibilities, and mothers are stigmatized if they are willing to give up custody. To gain custody in some states fathers have to prove that their former mate is an "unfit mother," a requirement hardly in the interest of the child.

The Future for the Men's Movement

While women's consciousness and men's awareness are having some impact upon all cultural groups, there are important disagreements among social-change advocates as to strategies, priorities, and timing of efforts for social change. The critical issue will be whether the advocates of human liberation can coordinate their struggles without subordination or domination.

Within the emergent men's movements, these differences also surface. Some men are most interested in focusing upon their own personal growth and change. Others observe that men's freedom from socially imposed roles is contingent upon women's freedom and for that reason urge political support for women as the priority. Or they urge that the focus be the patriarchal social structures that not only enable men to dominate women, but other men as well. Still others stress sexist, racist, and class oppression that makes some men and women dominators of others. For some men the "movement" is understood to be precisely the place where such questions must be faced and clarified. Others argue that the men's movements must adopt a correct analysis of the structures of oppression at the outset in order to avoid replicating the oppressive character prevalent in other institutions.

Clearly then, the issues of ideology, organization, and structure are important open questions for the men's movement. The questions that have been foremost in the minds of movement activites have been: How can hierarchies, bureaucracies, entrenched leadership, "in-groups"--all bearing the marks of patriarchal society--

be avoided? How can the necessary information be disseminated and communication facilitated without replicating elitist patterns? How can men who are beginning to recognize something amiss in traditional role expectations be helped to develop their own analysis and awareness of the problem? How can the many skills of individuals be used without developing new oligarchies? Can there be division of labor without difference in status?

None of the movements for social change has accomplished its goals without problems, reversals, and strategic errors. Perhaps more than any other movement, a men's movement needs this crucial insight: that people--men included--have the right to make errors!

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LEGISLATION

II

SEX EQUITY LEGISLATION

Since the Supreme Court's 1954 Decision regarding Brown vs. The Board of Education, Federal and State legislation and case law have spelled out different forms of discrimination in education and clarified the rights of students and employers. Discrimination by race, color, national origin, English language proficiency, or sex have been addressed with implications for educational programs, policies and practices.

Four Federal laws and a Federal executive order, comprise the major anti-sex discrimination requirements which are relevant to vocational education. Here is a synopsis of this legislation:

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended by the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin, or sex. All institutions or agencies with fifteen or more employees--including State and local governments and labor organizations--are covered under the amended Act. Title VII prohibits discriminatory practices in all terms and conditions of employment, including:

- recruitment, selection, assignment, transfer, layoff, discharge, and recall
- opportunities for promotion
- in-service training or development opportunities
- wages and salaries
- sick leave time and pay
- vacation time and pay
- overtime work and pay
- medical, hospital, life and accident insurance
- retirement plans and benefits
- other staff benefits

Complaints of employment practices which discriminate in violation of Title VII should be made to:

- The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
  2401 E Street, N.W.
  Washington, D.C. 20037

  or

- Equal Employment Opportunity Commission
  1845 Sherman Street
  Denver, CO 80203

In instances where State of local fair employment practices laws provide procedures for the handling of complaints of discrimination, the complaint may be referred to the agency for a sixty-day period of time. If the complaint is not resolved at this level, the EEOC assumes responsibility for investigation and conciliation. If this fails, the EEOC, the U.S. Attorney General, or the complainant may file suit.

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 as amended by the Education Amendments of 1972

The equal Pay act prohibits sex discrimination in salaries and most fringe benefits. All employees of education institutions and agencies, including those in professional, executive, and administrative positions, are covered by the Equal Pay Act.

The Act provides that a man and a woman working for the same employer under similar conditions in jobs requiring substantially equivalent skills, effort and responsibility must be paid equally even when job titles and assignemnts are not identical.

Employers are required to maintain specified records relevant to the determination of possible violations of the law. Complaints may be filed with:

- Employment Standards Administration
  Wage and Hour Division
  U.S. Department of Labor
  Washington, D.C. 20210

  or

- U.S. Department of Labor
  Equal Employment and Compliance
  721 19th Street
  Denver, CO 80202

Title IX of the 1972 Education Amendments

Employment Provisions:

The last section of the regulation covers the employment policies and practices of the education institution or agency. Specifically, discrimination is prohibited in:

- access to employment, including
  - recruitment policies and practices
  - advertising
  - application procedures
  - testing and interviewing practices
- hiring and promotion, including
  - selection practices
  - application of nepotism policies
  - demotion, lay off, termination
  - tenure

- compensation, including
  - wages and salaries
  - extra compensations
- job assignments, including
  - classification and position descriptions
  - lines of progressions
  - seniority lists
  - assignment and placement.
- leaves of absence, including
  - leaves for temporary disability
  - childbearing leave and related medical conditions
  - childrearing leave
- fringe benefits, including
  - insurance plans
  - retirement plans
  - vacation time
  - travel opportunities
  - selection and support for training
- labor organization contracts

The provisions of the implementing regulation may be interpreted through clarifying memoranda issued by the Office for Civil Rights or through decisions issued by the courts through the judicial process. They may also be modified or extended through legislative amendments.

The Regulation covering Title IX requires education agencies and institutions to develop grievance procedures for the local handling of complaints of discrimination. This procedure may be used or complaints may be filed directly with:

- The Office for Civil Rights
  U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
  Washington, D.C. 20201

  or

- Office for Civil Rights
  U.S. Department of HEW
  1961 Stout Street
  Denver, CO 80294

Executive Order 11246 as amended by 11375

Executive Order 11246 prohibits employment discrimination on the basis of race, color, religion, national origin or sex in institutions or agencies with Federal contracts of over $10,000. Relevant contracts

include both contracts for direct services and "grants" which involve a benefit to the Federal government. Institutions or agencies covered under the Executive Order must observe nondiscriminatory practices in hiring, discharge, promotion, wages, benefits, training, and all other conditions of employment.

Those institutions or agenices with Federal contracts of $50,000 or more and 50 or more employees are required to develop written affirmative action plans with numerical goals and timetables. Although the contract may involve only one unit within the institution, the affirmative action plan must cover all employees throughout the institution.

Enforcement of the Executive Order and related policy guidelines are the responsibility of the Office of Federal Contract Compliance (OFCC) of the U.S. Department of Labor. The OFCC has designated HEW as the agency responsible for enforcement of the Order as it affects education institutions and agencies. Complaint procedures are provided for the filing of charges of possible discrimination and noncompliance. Complaints should be filed with:

. The Office for Civil Rights
U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Washington, D.C. 20201

or

. Office for Civil Rights
U.S. Department of HEW
1961 Stout Street
Denver, CO 80294

Title VII (Section 799A) and Title VIII (Section 845 of the Public Health Service Act) as amended by the Comprehensive Health Manpower Training Act and the Nurse Training Amendments Act of 1971

Titles VII and VIII of the Public Health Service Act state that institutions receiving Federal funds for their health personnel training programs may not discriminate on the basis of sex in admissions or in employment practices relating to employees working directly with applicants or students. Every institution receiving or benefiting from a grant, loan guarantee, or interest subsidy to its health personnel training programs or receiving a contract under Title VII or VIII is covered.

Institutions are required to maintain specified records to determine whether violations have occurred. Periodic reviews of programs receiving Federal funds may be made to determine compliance with the regulation covering Titles VII and VIII.

Procedures are provided for the filing of complaints of violations of Titles VII and VIII. Complaints should be filed with:

. The Office for Civil Rights
U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare
Washington, D.C. 20201

or

. Office for Civil Rights
U.S. Department of HEW
1961 Stout Street
Denver, CO 80294

Leglislation - Vocational Education:

Equal Access

The following legislation is directed at specific applications of sex equity in vocational education:

PL 94-482 - Education Amendment of 1976
Title II, Sec. 201, 202, 203, 204, Vocational Education
Federal Register, Vol, 42, No. 191, 10/3/77
Federal Register, Vol. 44, No. 56, 3/21/79

Copies of these documents are available either through the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, or your federal congressman/congresswoman.

It is suggested copies be obtained and reviewed thoroughly for the letter and intent of the law.

SBDL 41 cw

national advisory council on women's educational programs

Suite 821
1832 M St., N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036
(202) 382-3862

THE EDUCATION AMENDMENTS OF 1976: IMPACT ON WOMEN AND GIRLS CONCERNING VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

On October 12, 1976 President Ford signed into law the Education Amendments of 1976 (Public Law 94-482). This law extends and revises the Vocational Education Act of 1963, the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title IX of the Education Amendments Act of 1972, and certain other federal education programs. The impact of the new legislation on women and girls is summarized by this paper. (For readers who wish to investigate the new law in depth, the text of the law is printed in the *Congressional Record* of Sept. 27, 1976 at page H11045. References to sections of the law are given in this memo in parentheses.* Alternatively, readers can obtain copies of the Education Amendments from their Congressional representatives.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Women achieved major breakthroughs in the revision of the Vocational Education Act. For the first time in educational program legislation, specific provisions regarding women's needs and concerns were written into the law.

Background. The Vocational Education Act affects all three levels of government—national, state, and local. At the national level, the Act directs that the Office of Education conduct various types of studies, administer federal grants to states and private groups, and conduct various small scale and experimental research programs. At the state level, the Act authorizes "matching" grants to states for a variety of specific purposes. That is, the federal government offers a certain amount of money to each state (based on various aspects of the state's population) on the condition that the state provide some of its own money for the same purpose. The Act also mandates some requirements for intrastate distribution of vocational education funds and specifies administrative requirements for operating state programs. States in turn distribute grants and contracts to local educational agencies or private groups in accordance with state law.

The revision of the Vocational Education Law by the Education Amendments of 1976 involves two major innovations. First, the Act consolidates all vocational education categorical grants (except consumer and homemaking education and special programs for the disadvantaged) into a single block grant for the states, and streamlines the process by which states apply for federal funds in order to increase states' flexibility in using federal funds and to attempt to reduce paperwork. Eighty percent of a state's block grant is a "basic grant" and twenty percent is for "program improvement and supportive services." Within each of these two subcategories, states have discretion of spending money between specific alternatives. Second, the Act overhauls the method of state planning for the use of federal vocational education money and requires inclusion of a wider range of groups in the planning process.

The effective date of these changes in the vocational education law is fiscal year 1978 (October, 1977). A "Notice of Intent" (to publish proposed regulations), which outlines policy questions to be resolved in the regulations, can be found in the *Federal Register*. Individuals and organizations are encouraged to comment on these questions and on the proposed regulation which will be published subsequently, also in the *Federal Register*. Additionally, before the Act can be fully implemented, Congress will have to appropriate a specific amount of money for the revised Act. Persons wishing information about the status of appropriations should contact their Congressional representatives.

I. IMPACT ON NATIONAL PROGRAMS

At the national level, the revised Act includes several topics of importance to women:

- *Investigation of Sex Bias* (P.L. 94-482, sec. 523(a))

The Commissioner of Education is required to conduct an investigation of the extent to which sex discrimination and stereotyping exist in all vocational education programs assisted under the Vocational Education Act, and of the progress made in reducing or eliminating such discrimination and stereotyping in such programs, and in the occupations for which such programs prepare students. By October, 1978, the results of the study and recommendations are to be reported to Congress. This provision is important in establishing a baseline from which to measure progress and in identifying methods being used to eliminate sex bias and stereotyping.

- *Collection of Data on Vocational Students by Sex and Race* (P.L. 94-482, sec. 161(a)(1)(A))

The Commissioner of Education, in conjunction with the National Center for Educational Statistics, must develop a national vocational education data reporting system (by September 30, 1977) which includes, among other things, school enrollments by race and sex. To fulfill this provision, vocational schools and programs will probably be required by regulation to keep statistics on sex and race of students and to report these to the Commissioner. Women's groups are likely to press for simultaneous collection and reporting of the data *by race by sex*, i.e. black females, black males, white males, white females. Such data is viewed as crucial not only in determining the impact of the various programs on women and girls in general but also in evaluating the impact of such programs on minority females.

- *Awarding of Federal Contracts and Projects Grants Regarding Sex Bias* (VEA, sec. 171(a)(1))

The Commissioner is authorized to use 5% of the funds available under the authorization for state grants for contracts (and some grants) for various types of research and development of model programs, including those aimed at overcoming problems of sex stereotyping and bias in curriculum, guidance and testing materials, staff and teachers' attitudes and behavior (by means of in-service training), "if such activities are deemed to be of national significance by the Commissioner." Private groups as well as governmental bodies will in some instances be eligible to bid for these federal contracts.

- *Appointment of Women to the National Advisory Council and State Advisory Councils on Vocational Education* (VEA 105(a)(17) &

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* Since the Education Amendments of 1976 amend the Vocational Education Act of 1963 (VEA), cites to the latter are given where necessary to avoid confusion. P.L. 94-482 refers to the Amendments of 1976.

Bernice Sandler, Silver Spring, MD, chair
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Elizabeth Z. Fryar, Brentwood, TN
Jon Fuller, Ann Arbor, MI
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& (12))

These "citizen watchdog" councils, appointed by the President to the National Council, and by state governors to the State Councils, often exercise significant influence on federal or state policy concerning the administration of programs. Women, including minority women, who are knowledgeable about sex discrimination problems in job hunting and employment are required to be appointed to the Councils. "Appropriate representation of both sexes" is also mandated. These legal requirements are important in order to remedy the chronic inadequate representation of women and minorities on such councils.

II. IMPACT AT THE STATE LEVEL

- *Mandate to States to End Sex Discrimination in Vocational Education* (VEA 101 (3))

Overcoming sex discrimination and stereotyping in vocational education programs is now included as one of the purposes of federally assisted state vocational education programs.

- *State Accountability* (VEA 107(b)(4) & 108(b)(1)(c)(ii))

State boards or agencies of vocational education must submit five year plans and annual plans, regarding use of federal funds to the Office of Education as a condition for receiving federal aid. In addition to other requirements, these plans must specify in detail state policies and procedures to assure equal access to programs by women and men, to overcome sex discrimination and stereotyping, and to encourage enrollment of women and men in non-traditional courses. The required annual program plan must also demonstrate compliance with the five year plan in all of these areas.

These provisions are crucial because they require states to consider and *act* on issues generally ignored in the past—the problem of equal access to all vocational education programs and the specialized needs of women students in light of past and sometimes continuing discrimination.

- *Equal Opportunity Personnel for Women's Concerns* (VEA 104(b)(1) & (2); 120(b)(1)(F); and 109(a)(3)(b))

States must designate some full-time personnel to "assist" the state board or vocational education agency in eliminating sex bias in programs. A minimum of $50,000 (with no matching requirement) is to be spent for this purpose, but states may also use part of the block grant to support additional full-time personnel. The duties of such personnel include collection and analysis of data on status of women as students and employees; monitoring grant distribution to insure that the needs and interests of women are addressed by projects assisted by the Act; monitoring programs for sex bias; developing remedies and recommendations to overcome sex bias; and disseminating information developed under this section concerning efforts to combat sex discrimination. Also, these personnel must be afforded the opportunity "to review" the state's five year plan and annual program plans.

This provision requiring some personnel to focus on sex equality is crucial because the policy-makers of state boards or agencies have often paid little attention in the past to problems concerning sex discrimination/stereotyping in their programs. The provision helps insure that women's issues and concerns will be identified and that policies and procedures to eliminate sex bias will be developed and emplemented.

- *Impact on Guidance and Counseling* (VEA 120(b)(1)(j); 134(a)(4); 134(a)(7); 133(a)(2))

Funds granted under the state's basic block grant may be utilized to provide counseling and job placement services for women who enter job training programs which are traditionally male. Under "Program Improvement and Supportive Services" (i.e. 20% of block grant), states must spend a minimum of 20% of the available funds on guidance programs which may include vocational resource centers to assist (among others) individuals out of school, seeking second careers, or entering the job market late in life, and in-service training for guidance counselors on non-sexist counseling and changing work patterns of women. Contracts awarded by the state may be for the development of non-sexist guidance and testing materials.

These provisions are necessary to change the attitudes and behavior of guidance counselors who are in a position to influence and encourage female students in setting their goals. Also, the provisions recognize the importance of supportive counseling for women dealing with sex bias in non-traditional occupations.

- *Revision of Curriculum* (VEA 133(a)(2); 131(a)(3))

States have the discretion to use funds from the block grant's subcategory "Program Improvement and Supportive Services" for awarding contracts to develop non-sexist curriculum. Also, research contracts may be awarded by state "research coordination units" to review and revise experimental curricula for any sex-role stereotyping.

- *Vocational Education for Adult Women* (VEA 120(b)(1)(L); 120(b)(1)(k))

States have the discretion to use their block grants for vocational education programs for certain categories of individuals, including homemakers and part-time workers seeking full-time jobs, women trapped in traditional jobs but who desire non-traditional employment, single heads of household lacking adequate job skills, and divorced housewives who need employment. States may also use funds for day care services for children of students. These provisions are important because they recognize and support the legitimacy of education and training for adult women who have traditionally been short-changed by the education system.

- *Grants and Contracts to Overcome Sex Bias* (VEA 131(a)(2); 132(f))

Under the sub-category "Program Improvement" of the block grant, states have the discretion to award research contracts, and contracts for "exemplary and innovative" projects of specified types (e.g. focus on rural women and those people migrating from rural to urban areas) which are to give priority to reducing sex stereotyping.

Also, states may use federal funds to support activities which show promise of overcoming sex stereotyping and bias in vocational education.

- *Teachers and Other Staff* (VEA 135(a)(2))

States may use federal funds from the program improvement sub-category to support in-service training of teachers and other staff concerning the elemination of sex bias in vocational education programs. States may also award contracts for support services "designed to enable teachers to meet the needs of individuals enrolled in non-traditional job training programs."

- *Consumer and Homemaking Education*

Federal grants to states for this purpose must be used to support programs and services which encourage participation of both males and females to prepare for combining the roles of homemaker and wage earners. Sex stereotyping should be eliminated by developing curriculum materials which deal with equal opportunities laws, the changing career patterns of women, and men assuming homemaking responsibilities. Also, state programs should provide homemaking education programs for youth and adults not currently in school, such as school-age parents and single parents. These provisions are necessary to up-date homemaking education in terms of present day realities and to encourage boys/men as well as girls/women to view homemaking education as a necessary and valuable skill.

It is not clear whether states could choose to teach sex education as part of "family living and parenthood education," which states must include in the curriculum.

* * * * *

Excerpts from OCR Guideline Published
in the Federal Register, Vol. 44, No. 56,
Wednesday, March 21, 1979

Title 45--Public Welfare

Subtitle: A--Department of Health, Education, and Welfare

Vocational Education Programs

Guidelines for Eliminating Discrimination and Denial of Services on the Basis of Race, Color, National Origin, Sex, and Handicap

AGENCY: Office for Civil Rights, Department of Health, Education, and Welfare.

ACTION: Final Guidelines for Vocational Education Programs.

SUMMARY: These guidelines explain the civil rights responsibilities of recipients of Federal funds offering or administering vocational education programs. They derive from and provide guidance, supplementary to Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the implementing departmental regulation (45 CFR Part 80), Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 and the implementing departmental regulation (45 CFR Part 86), and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the implementing departmental regulation (45 CFR Part 84).

EFFECTIVE DATE: March 15, 1979.

FOR FURTHER INFORMATION CONTACT:

David Gerard, Office of Standards
Policy and Research, Dept. of Health,
Education and Welfare
Office for Civil Rights
330 Independence Avenue, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20201
(Telephone 202-245-9177)

A. Legal Basis For The Guidelines

Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color, and national origin in any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance. The Department of Health, Education, and Welfare issued regulations implementing Title VI in 1965. Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in education programs receiving or benefiting from Federal financial assistance. The Department issued regulations implementing Title IX in 1975. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 prohibits discrimination on the basis of handicap in any program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance. The Department issued regulations implementing Section 504 in 1977. These civil rights statutes and their implementing regulations apply to vocational education programs.

In 1973, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare was sued for its failure to enforce Title VI in a number of education areas, including vocational education (Adams v. Califano). As a result of this litigation, the Department was directed to enforce civil rights requirements in vocational education programs through compliance reviews, a survey of enrollments and related data, and the issuance of guidelines explaining the application of Title VI regulations to vocational education. The Guidelines that follow are issued to meet a requirement of the Adams court orders. B. Factual Basis For The Guidelines

The Guidelines are also adopted because it is apparent that many vocational education administrators engage in unlawfully discriminatory practices. They need additional guidance and support from the Department to meet their obligations under civil rights authorities.

Information provided by the Office of Education's Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education for 1976 and 1977 reveals that male and female students are concentrated in programs traditionally identified as intended for them:

	Percent of Total Enrollment			
	1976		1977	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Health occupations	21.2	78.8	21.2	78.3
Occupational home economics	15.3	84.7	16.1	83.9
Consumer and homemaking	16.8	83.2	18.4	81.6
Technical	88.7	11.3	83.0	17.0
Trade and industrial	87.3	12.7	85.6	14.4
Vocational agriculture	88.7	11.3	85.2	14.8
Office Occupations	24.9	75.1	24.9	75.1

In recent years vocational education administrators have addressed unlawful discrimination in their programs. Generally, they have taken advantage of the affirmative action provisions of the Vocational Education Amendments of 1976. Administrative procedures to implement these provisions are in place and are contributing to equal opportunity. Thus, the above chart suggests that between 1976 and 1977, female participation increased in technical, trade and industrial, and vocational agriculture programs. There was also an increase in male participation in Consumer and Homemaking programs and Occupational Home Economics programs.

Current information on the enrollment of handicapped and minority students in specific vocational programs is not available. This deficiency will be corrected through the Office for Civil Rights Vocational Education Survey of 1979 and the Vocational Education Data System (VEDS) required by the Vocational Education Amendment of 1976. However, compliance reviews conducted by OCR investigative staff from 1973 to 1978 consistently found civil rights violations in vocational schools. For example:

1. Eligibility requirements such as residence within a geographic area or admissions tests deny vocational education opportunities on the basis of race, color, national origin and handicap;

2. Handicapped students are impermissably assigned to separate annexes or branches; they are also denied equal vocational education opportunities as a result of inaccessible facilities and inadequate evaluation procedures;

3. Vocational schools established for students of one race, national origin or sex continue as essentially segregated facilities;

4. National origin minorities with limited proficiency in English are denied equal opportunity to participate in vocational programs;

5. Vocational education administrators often fail to adequately protect against discrimination in the placement of students with employers;

6. Faculty and staff are assigned to vocational programs on the basis of race, national origin, sex and handicap.

Reports from advocate groups have identified other possible civil rights violations. For example, the N.A.A.C.P. Legal Defense Fund (LDF) has alleged that State agencies engage in unlawful discrimination against urban areas in the allocation of Federal vocational education funds.

Note: Excerpt only; recommend original document.

NATIONAL/STATE EMPLOYMENT DATA

III

NATIONAL

INCOME, EARNINGS, AND EDUCATION

Most women who work outside the home do so primarily because they need that income that they will earn. Either the paychecks of single, widowed, divorced, or separated women and of wives of men earning low incomes are required to meet living expenses, or else large numbers of women wish to attain a higher standard of living, to provide for childrens' educations, to pay for luxury vacations, material possessions, or to make use of talents and skills acquired through education and training.

Despite their need to work and their increasing numbers in the labor force, women workers' earnings as a percentage of males' continue to reflect a wide gap. In 1955, women's median annual earnings for year-round, full-time work was 63.9% of males' in the same category, and in 1975, it was 58.8%.

The total money income of men and women is further differentiated in favor of males when comparing income levels. In the United States in 1975, 24% of males with income earned $15,000 or more, and only approximately 2.5% of women with income earned $15,000 or more.

The gap narrows slightly when educational attainment is considered; in 1975 in the United States, of the females with five years or more of schooling, 30.5% earned $15,000 or more, whereas 60.0% of males with the same education earned $15,000 or more.

Approximately 53% of all women with income earned between $1-3999, whereas only 20.7% of males had earnings between $1-3999.

Explanations rationalizing these facts are rampant in articles and publications dealing with data on women in the labor force. The reasons most often cited are:

1. Females do not have the continuous work history that men do. Traditionally female work patterns have shown a short stay in the labor force until marriage and/or childbirth. As reentrants to the labor market, women bring with them outdated skills and a lack of current work experience.

2. The fact that the occupational skills of females are concentrated in the clerical and service areas tends to depress their earnings, as these occupations traditionally offer lower wages and little opportunity for upward mobility.

3. The most obvious reason, however, for the wide gap between male/ female earnings is a broad discriminatory pattern by employers, who have many prejudices against females: they are not dependable; are less committed; they quit for marriage or pregnancy; they have childrensitting problems; they have a pattern of taking excess sick leave, etc. Longitudinal studies done by researchers for the Department of Labor indicate that these rationalizations are more a result of perpetuating role stereotypes than actual statistical fact.

4. The fact that more women in our economy are clamoring for jobs than ever before, which in turn is creating an oversupply of female workers, tends to depress the wages offered, and weakens the females' bargaining power.

5. Union membership among females is of a much smaller proportion to the male participation rate; this is another factor in keeping earnings of females lower than males'.

It is anticipated that the next ten years will result in a trend toward closing the earnings gap between men and women working in the same occupations.

Reprinted from: Women In the Labor Force: A Statistical Portrait, pp. 47,48. Colorado Department of Labor and Employment, Colorado Division of Employment and Training, Research and Analysis, Denver, Colorado, April, 1978.

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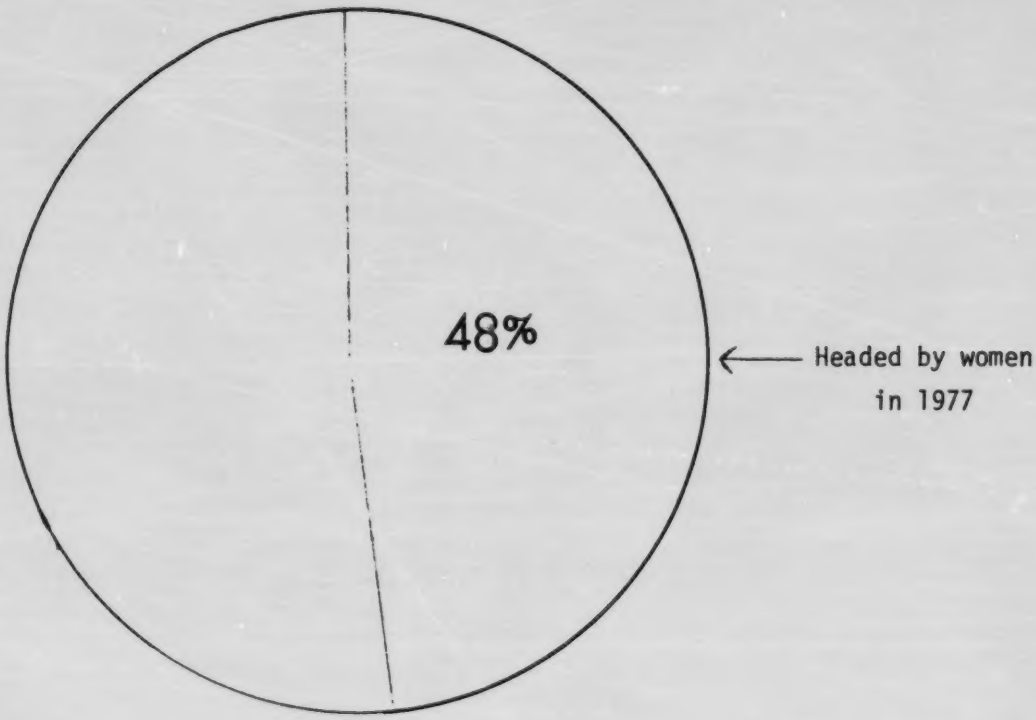
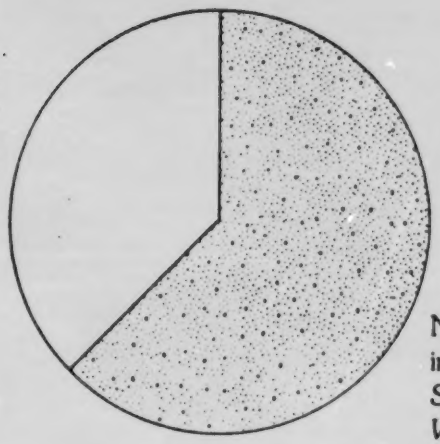
TOTAL POOR FAMILIES



Source: U.S. Dept. of Labor, Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau

A MAJORITY OF WOMEN WORK BECAUSE OF ECONOMIC NEED

⅓ of all women in the labor force were married with husband present



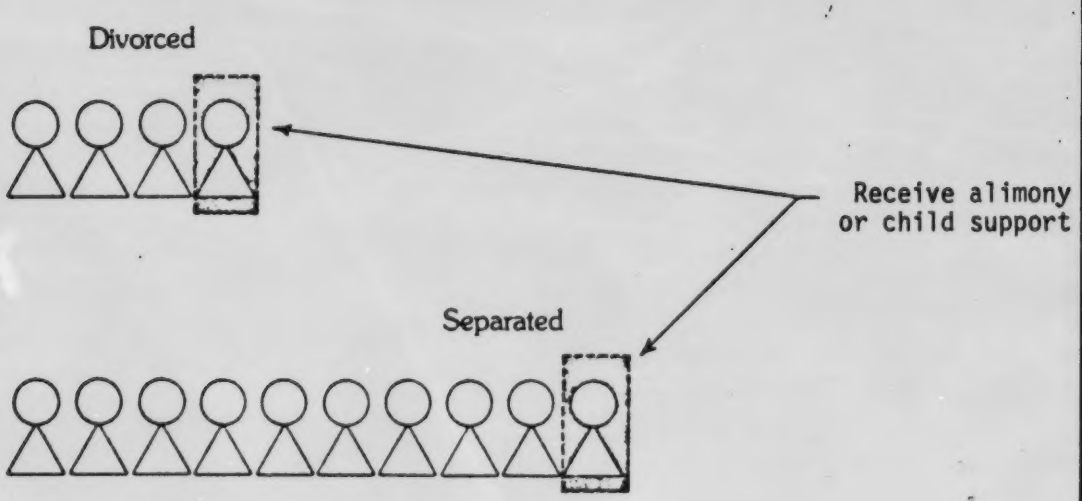
1977

Nearly ⅔ of all women in the labor force were *SINGLE* *WIDOWED* *DIVORCED* *or had* husbands earning less than $10,000.00 in 1976

Source:
U.S. Department of Labor. Office of the Secretary. Women's Bureau.

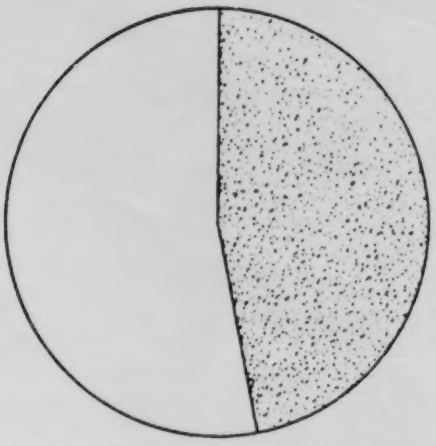
INCOMES
1976

Average income of divorced women	$6,200.00
Average income of separated women	$4,100.00
Median income of husband-wife families	$16-18,000.00

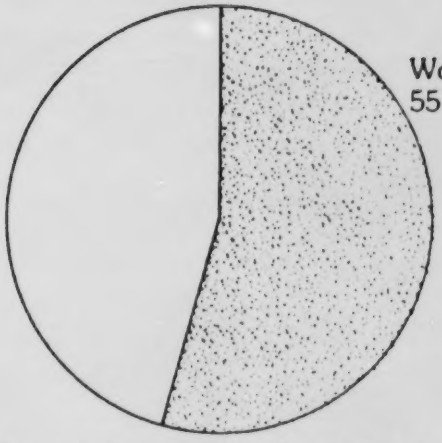


Source:
"Special Labor Force Reports - Summaries"
-Allyson Sherman Grossman, *Monthly Labor Review*, October, 1978

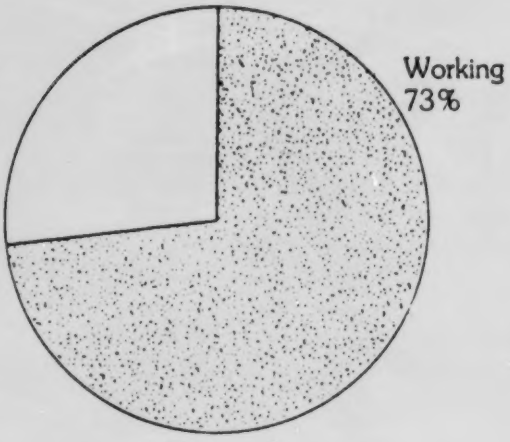
NATIONAL LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATE OF WOMEN - 1977



Married, husband present



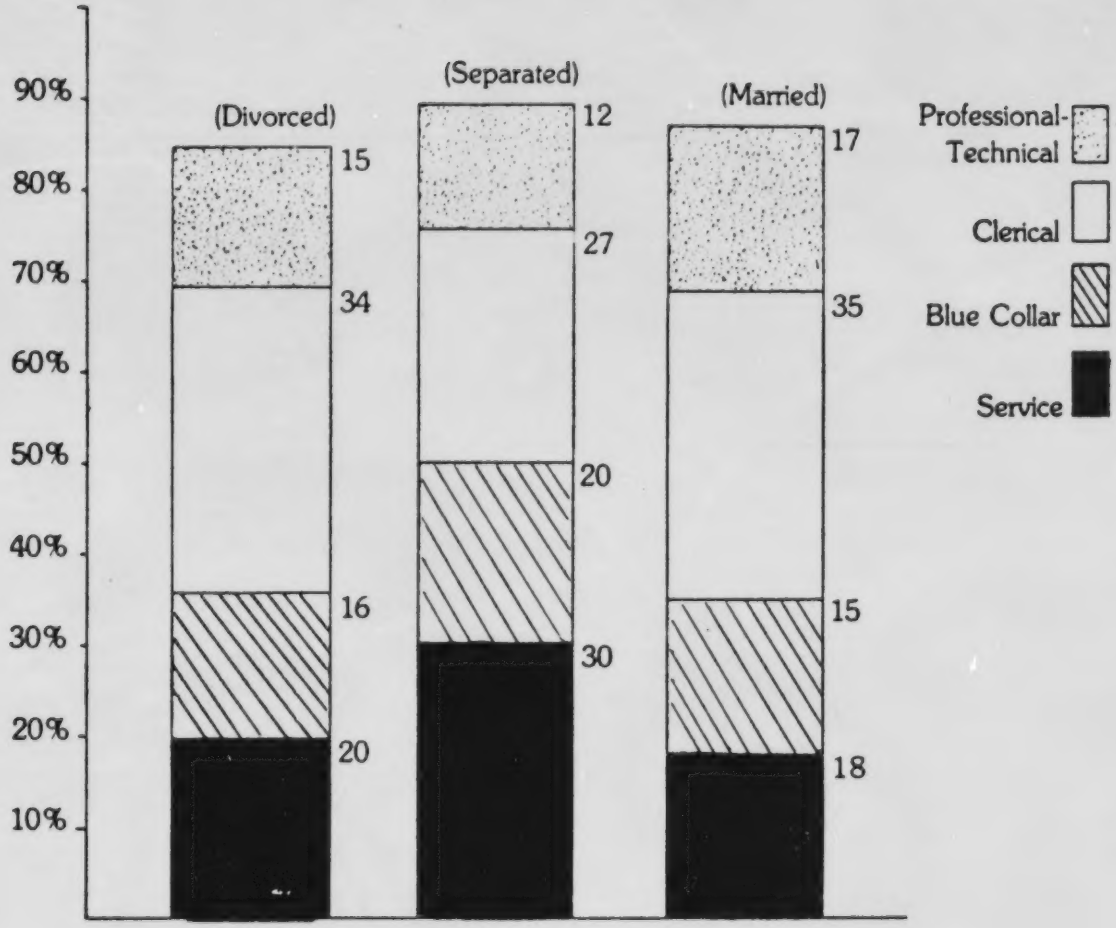
Separated, married husband absent



Divorced

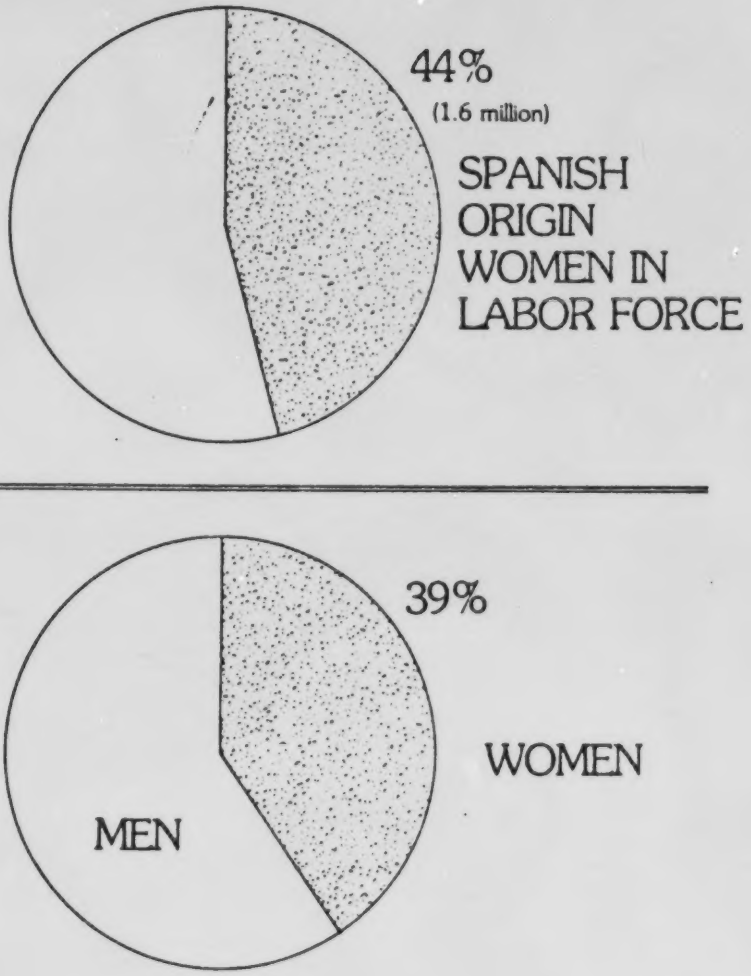
Source:
"Special Labor Force Reports - Summaries"-Allyson Sherman Grossman, Monthly Labor Review, October, 1978

OCCUPATIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF EMPLOYED WOMEN 1977



Source:
"Special Labor Force Reports - Summaries"
-Allyson Sherman Grossman, Monthly Labor *Review*, October, 1978

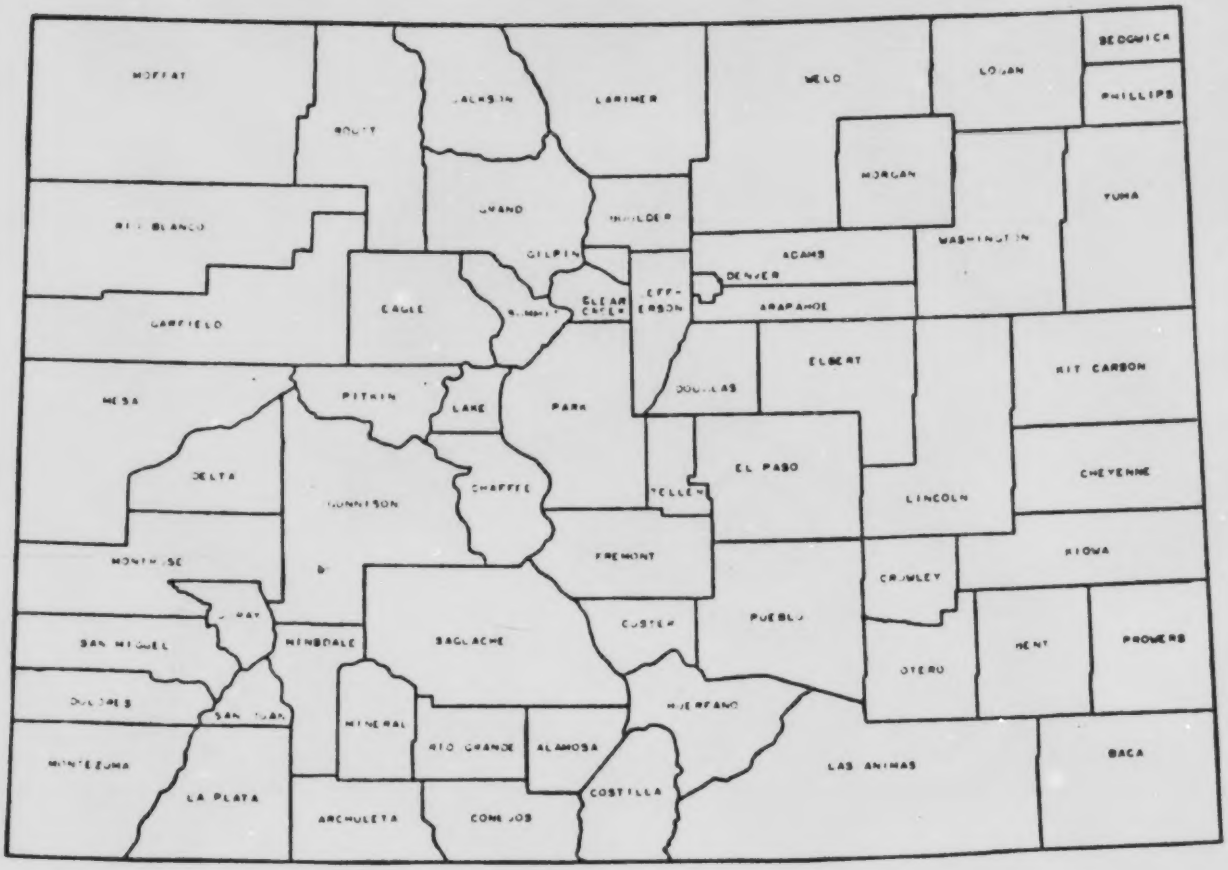
SPANISH-ORIGIN WOMEN 1977



TOTAL SPANISH-ORIGIN WORKERS

Source: U.S. Department of Labor,
Office of the Secretary, Women's Bureau.

COLORADO


MOFFAT
ROUTT
JACKSON
LARIMER
WELD
LOGAN
SEDGWICK
PHILLIPS
MORGAN
YUMA
WASHINGTON
GRAND
BOULDER
GILPIN
ADAMS
DENVER
ARAPAHOE
CLEAR CREEK
JEFFERSON
RIO BLANCO
GARFIELD
EAGLE
SUMMIT
DOUGLAS
ELBERT
KIT CARSON
MESA
PITKIN
LAKE
PARK
DELTA
GUNNISON
CHAFFEE
TELLER
EL PASO
LINCOLN
CHEYENNE
MONTROSE
FREMONT
CROWLEY
KIOWA
OURAY
SAN MIGUEL
HINSDALE
SAGUACHE
CUSTER
PUEBLO
OTERO
BENT
PROWERS
DOLORES
SAN JUAN
MINERAL
HUERFANO
RIO GRANDE
ALAMOSA
MONTEZUMA
LA PLATA
ARCHULETA
CONEJOS
COSTILLA
LAS ANIMAS
BACA

SBCCOE - OE
SEX EQUITY

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF APPLICANTS REGISTERED WITH THE EMPLOYMENT SERVICE

The Employment Service Automated Reporting System (ESARS) collects demographic characteristics of those applicants seeking employment through state Job Service Centers.

The following tables reflect the proportions of males and females in ten major occupational categories by age, education, ethnicity, race, veteran status, as well as the disadvantaged and handicapped classifications, for Colorado and the Denver-Boulder Labor Market Area (LMA) for a twelve-month period from October 1, 1976 through September 30, 1977.

Much of this data further substantiates the information presented in this publication. Some of the highlights are:

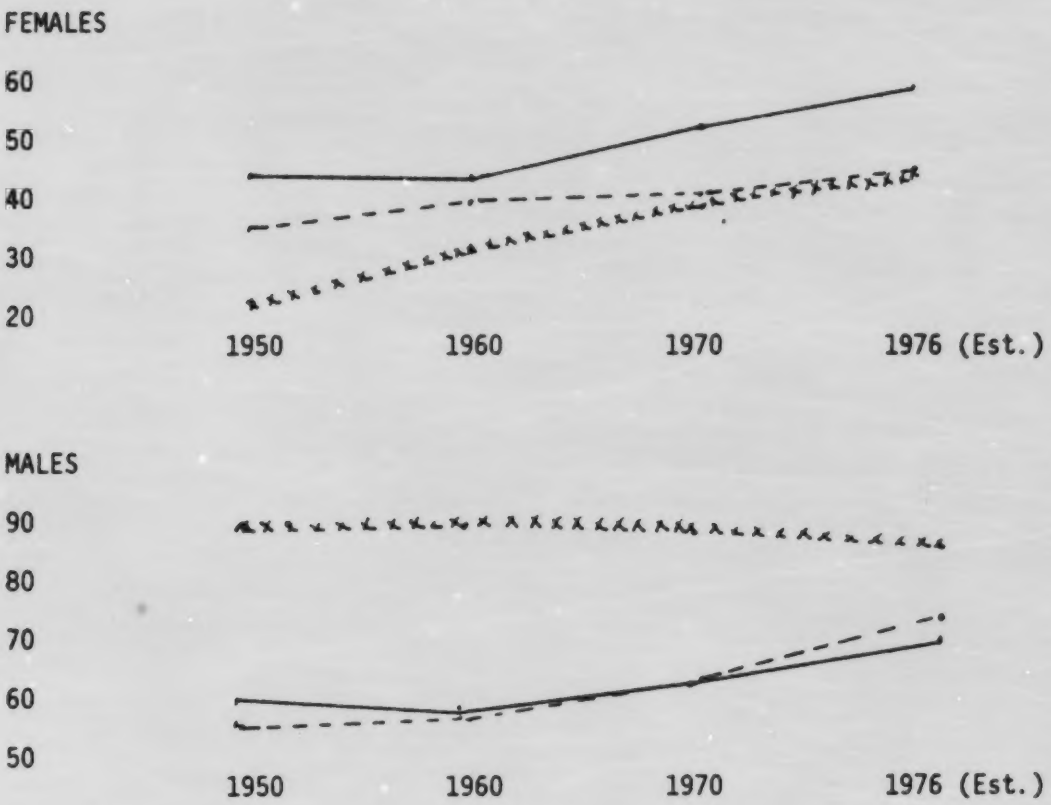
- -60% of all applicants with Professional, Technical, and Managerial skills are male.
- -Only 7.5% in this category are Spanish-surnamed.
- -Educational attainment for this occupational group is about the same for males and females: approximately 61% have had 13-16 years of education.
- -Those occupational categories in which females are heavily represented are Clerical (83%); Sales (55%); Services (58%); and Benchwork (fabrication, assembly, and repair), 60%.
- -In Almost all occupations except Professional, Technical, and Managerial; Services; and Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishery; between 40 and 60% of the applicants have had up to twelve years of schooling.
- -Spanish-surnamed applicants are heavily represented in the Service, Agriculture, and Processing occupational clusters, while
- -The black population, on the other hand, is represented in all occupational clusters relative to their proportion to total applicants, which is approximately 5.0%.

Adapted from
Women in the Labor Force: A Statistical Portrait. Colorado Department of Labor & Employment
Denver, CO April 1978, pg 58.

FDDL 20 pm

Single _____
Married, other than spouse present - - - - -
Married, spouse present xxxxxxx

COLORADO LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES
BY MARITAL STATUS AND SEX



Women in the Labor Force: A Statistical Portrait
Colorado Department of Labor & Employment, April 1978 p. 7

FDDL 20 pm

INCOME LEVELS BY % OF TOTAL AND OCCUPATION OF THE FEMALE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE

COLORADO - 1960-1975

	$1-999 or less	$1,000-$1,999	$2,000-$2,999	$3,000-$3,999	$4,000-$4,999	$5,000-$5,999	$6,000-$6,999	$7,000-$9,999	$10,000 or more
Professional Technical								36%	15%
Managers Administrators					12%			19%	16%
Salesworkers	24%	16%	12%						
Clerical Workers				13%	16%	15%			
Craft Workers	16%				16%			19%	
Operatives				16%	18%	12%			
Laborers (except farm)		15%		18%	15%				
Farmers, Mgr's.	44%						17%	9%	
Farm laborers	30%	20%		17%					
Service Workers (except private household)	28%	20%			17%				
Private Household	54%	21%	13%						

NOTE: 1. The above percentages represent the three highest salary categories for each occupation.

Adapted from Women In The Labor Force: A Statistical Portrait p. 49

Department of Labor & Employment Denver, CO, April 1978

FDDL 20 pm

STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
Occupational Education

Women in the Labor Force

Today American women number almost 37 million in the civilian labor force with 33.6 million women actually employed. Two out of every five workers were women in 1975, marking an increase in female labor force participation to 40 percent. In New York State, women employed as a percentage of total employment approached the national figure of 40 percent. The Table below presents an estimate of female labor force participation in Colorado.

1978 Colorado Annual Average
Employment Status by Sex

	Employed	Unemployed	Unemployment Rate	% Employed
Both Sexes	1,278,302	49,316	3.7	100%
Male	790,112	28,409	3.5	61.8%
Female	488,190	20,907	4.1	38.2%

In the last decade alone, women accounted for three-fifths of the labor force increase, the greatest gains occurring among those women aged 20 to 54. The labor force participation of this age group, the prime age workers, was 55 percent. For all women 16 years and older, the participation rate for 1975 was 46 percent, rising from 34 percent in 1950.

Forty-four percent of all married women were employed, comprising almost three-fifths of all women workers. The increased labor force participation of wives is by and large neither temporary nor capricious, and is altering the familiar pattern of husband-breadwinner and wife-homemaker.

Of the approximately 4 million divorced women in the United States, 72 percent were employed, constituting 12.3 percent of the female labor force. The Labor Department has noted that divorced women have consistently yielded the highest labor force participation rate of any group of American women.

Fifty-five percent of the 3 million separated women were also employed. Separated women, as defined by the Department of Labor, are married women who are either permanently or temporarily living apart from their husbands for reasons other than vacations, business obligations, and the like.

In 1975, it appeared that motherhood was becoming less of a barrier to employment outside the home than ever before, with 14.1 million mothers employed. This figure represents an increase of 4.5 million over the past decade. Of the 27.6 million children whose mothers were employed, 21.1 million were 6 to 17 years of age, and 6.5 million were under age 6.

No fewer than 14.3 million children, or 23 percent of all children, were living in families in which the father was absent (9.4 million), unemployed (2.5 million), or not in the labor force (2.4 million). One out of eight families was headed by a woman, the number of such families having grown to 7.2 million in 1975. And approximately 2.2 million female-headed families were then living in poverty. These figures indicate an obvious need for women to seek employment or to remain employed when possible.

The labor force participation rate for all mothers was 47.4 percent in 1975, as compared with 46 percent for all women. These figures have increased significantly since 1950 when the participation rate for mothers was only two-thirds as high as that for all women. Approximately 55 percent of widows, divorcees, and separated women with preschool children were employed; over 66 percent were workers if their children were of school age. For divorced women in particular, the labor force participation rates of those with children under 18 was 75 percent, 80 percent for those with children aged 6 to 17 years.

As indicated by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the more education a woman has received, the greater the likelihood of her being in the labor force.

Labor Force Status of Women 16 Years and over, by Years of School Completed and Marital Status, March 1975

(Numbers in thousands)

Labor force and marital status	Years of school completed							
		Elementary		High school		College		
	Total	Less than 8 years	8 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	1 to 3 years	4 years	5 years or more
Married, husband present	47,628	3,280	3,849	7,957	21,457	6,012	3,672	1,401
In labor force	21,143	805	1,087	3,086	10,124	2,989	2,095	958
Labor force participation rate	44.4	24.5	28.2	38.8	47.2	49.7	57.1	68.4
Divorced	3,996	270	294	691	1,719	672	187	164
In labor force	2,881	102	137	424	1,382	535	156	145
Labor force participation rate	72.1	37.8	46.6	61.4	80.4	79.6	83.4	88.4
Separated	2,994	477	248	793	1,069	260	84	63
In labor force	1,653	159	107	361	731	177	64	54
Labor force participation rate	55.2	33.3	43.1	45.5	68.4	•68.1	76.2	(1)

[1]Rate not shown where base is less than 75,000.

SOURCE: Monthly Labor Review, January 1977, published by the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics.

In 1975 both married and divorced working women had received an average of 12.5 years of formal schooling. Less than half of those women who were separated, however, had graduated from high school, averaging only 11.9 years of education. This reflects, in part, the higher percentage of less educated black women in this particular group, black women comprising more than one-third of all separated women.

Of all women workers about one-eighth or 4.8 million were members of minority races. The labor force participation rate of these women was 49 percent, exceeding the rate for white women workers by about 3 percent. Among black women, the labor force participation rate was 58 percent. Labor force participation of Spanish-origin women was 42 percent; however, the corresponding rate for Puerto Rican-origin women was only 34 percent. The Department of Labor notes that three out of five Puerto Ricans reside in New York City.

Women are more apt to be employed in white collar positions than men, but they are usually concentrated in those jobs requiring less skill and offering lower wages. Although women comprised two-fifths of all professional and technical workers, they were most likely to be teachers or health workers, filling 72 and 64 percent of these positions respectively. Approximately 35 percent of all women workers filled 78 percent of all clerical occupations, among them more than 4 million secretarial, typing, and stenographic positions. Only 5.5 percent of all women employed held managerial or administrative positions. One out of every five women workers was employed in the service industry.

Blue collar and service positions provided employment for 18 and 37 percent of minority women, with the proportion of minority women in clerical employment having increased to 25 percent in 1975. For Spanish-origin women in particular, employment was divided chiefly among three occupational groups, with 27 percent as operatives, including transport, 29 percent as clerical workers, and 24 percent as service employees. Women of Puerto Rican-origin were slightly more concentrated in operative positions, 29 percent so employed.

The Department of Labor reports that in 1975 3.4 million American women were unemployed, accounting for 44 percent of total unemployment. Nearly one-half million of these women were family heads, their unemployment rate being 10.0 percent as compared with 6.0 percent for male family heads.

The 1978 annual average male and female unemployment in Colorado and corresponding rates of unemployment are reported on page 1.

Although the unemployment rates of nonwhite females generally exceed those of white females, for both groups higher rates of unemployment can be anticipated for the youngest and oldest age categories. In addition, the jobless rates for nonwhite males far outstrip those projections for females, white or nonwhite, except at 65 years and over where figures are comparable. White males in the prime working years are expected to report the lowest unemployment rates for all population groups. It should be noted that unemployment figures may actually be underestimated in that only those actively seeking work are included.

As reported by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, in 1975 less than half of all women who were unemployed, seeking jobs, found employment. This is in marked contrast to that which applies to jobless males.

PERCENT OF PERSONS LEAVING UNEMPLOYMENT
WHO FOUND JOBS BY AGE AND SEX, 1975

Age	Percent of Female Job Finders	Percent of Male Job Finders
16 and over	43	64
16-19	40	47
20-24	46	66
25-44	43	79
45-59	44	74
60+	35	40

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, January 1977.

An average of two out of three men ended a spell of unemployment by finding jobs; the figure increased to more than three out of four men in the age group of 25 to 59 years. For women the variations in numbers of job finders among age categories were small in comparison.

In 1974, the median weekly earnings of men exceeded those of women by about $97, women earning only 57 cents for each male-earned dollar. From 1955 to 1974, the male-female earnings differential has increased despite

steady gains in female labor force participation. The median earnings of men exceeded those of women by 56.4 percent in 1955. By 1974, the median male earnings of $11,835 surpassed the $6,772 median female wage by 74.8 percent. Only 18 percent of male workers, yet 53 percent of females employed earned less than $7,000 annually. Eighty-two percent of women but only 38 percent of men earned less than $10,000 per year.

Within each occupational group, women seem, for the most part, to have remained concentrated in the lower-status, lower-paying positions, reinforcing historic patterns of "male" and "female" jobs to a large degree. Within the category of sales workers, for example, women tended to be employed in retail trade, while men were more often employed in the higher-paying commissioned, nonretail positions. However, even when women may hold positions of the same caliber as men, earnings differences still persist, as in the case of women scientists whose salaries were from $1,700 to $5,100 less than those of their male colleagues. Further comparisons of male-female wage differentials within occupational groups can be found in the Table on the following page.

It is expected that the educational attainment of a potential worker would be directly related to that occupation and the particular position and level for which the individual would qualify. However, the Labor Department notes that women with 4 years of college earned only 59 percent of the income of men with similar educational backgrounds and less than that earned by men with an eighth grade education. Full-time employed women high school graduates on the average had lower incomes than men who had not completed elementary school.

The difference in type of education, training, and counseling received can possibly help to explain wage differentials if these factors do direct women into traditional and stereotyped roles and positions. In addition, other elements which may affect a woman's earning potential include worklife expectancy and overtime work. Women, on the average, work 17.2 years less than men; a wide gap, but one that is narrowing with increased worklife expectancies for women and declining expectancies for men. The discontinuous patterns of a woman's worklife, largely resulting from family responsibilities, also have had adverse effects on earning potential. With increased labor force participation of wives and mothers this factor may lose its influence over time.

It should also be noted that the proportion of full-time employed women who work overtime is relatively small, with men being three times more likely than women to engage in overtime work.

The Department of Labor has indicated, however, that even after adjusting for the aforementioned factors and others such as age, region, and industrial concentration, much of the male-female earnings differential remains unexplained--representing a maximum measure of discrimination.

SOURCE: U. S. Department of Labor, Women and Work, October 1976 and March 1977; The Earnings Gap Between [illegible] 1976; Women of Puerto Rican Origin, January 1977 [illegible] Workers Today, 1976; and articles in the Monthly Labor Review, May 1976, June 1976, and January 1977.

Total Money Earnings of Civilian Year-Round Full-Time Workers,
by Occupation Group and Sex, 1974

Occupation group	Women	Men	Dollar Gap	Women's earnings as a percent of men's	Percent men's earnings exceeded women's
Total	$6,772	$11,835	$5,063	57.2	74.8
Professional, technical, and kindred workers	9,570	14,873	5,303	64.3	55.4
Managers and administrators	8,603	15,425	6,822	55.8	79.3
Sales workers, total	5,168	12,523	7,355	41.3	142.3
Retail trade	4,734	9,125	4,391	51.9	92.8
Other sales workers	8,452	13,983	5,531	60.4	65.4
Clerical workers	6,827	11,514	4,687	59.3	68.7
Craft and kindred workers	6,492	12,028	5,536	54.0	85.3
Operatives	5,766	10,176	4,410	56.7	76.5
Service workers	5,046	8,638	3,592	58.4	71.2
Farmers and farm managers	(1)	5,459	---	---	---
Farm laborers and supervisors	(1)	5,097	---	---	---
Non-farm laborers	5,891	8,145	2,254	72.3	38.3
Private household workers	2,676	(1)	---	---	---

[1]Base less than 75,000.

SOURCE: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau: The Earnings Gap Between Women and Men (1976).

DEFINITIONS

IV

GLOSSARY

In the context of this booklet and related activities, the following definitions shall apply:

BIAS	An inclination of temperament or outlook; a highly personal and unreasoned distortion of judgment; a prejudice.
CHAUVINIST	A person who has unreasonable devotion to the superiority of one's own sexual group, racial group, country, etc.
DISCRIMINATE	To limit or deny a person opportunities, privileges, roles or rewards on a basis other than individual merit.
EQUITY	State or quality of being just, impartial and fair.
FEMINIST	A person who supports the philosophy that women should have the same political and economic rights as men.
GENDER	The cultural or social concept of identity based on sex, e.g., males and females.
MINORITY	A group of persons numbering less than half of the total group.
NONTRADITIONAL	Not traditional; deviation from long established customs, practices or behaviors.
OCCUPATIONAL SEX STEREOTYPES	Gender-based characteristics, unrelated to job skills, which are believed to be appropriate to members of one or the other sex in specific occupations.
ROLE	A behavior pattern, typically expected by our society, of people sharing common characteristics.
SEX BIAS	Behaviors resulting from the assumption that one sex is superior to the other; (prejudice based solely on sex, exclusive of individual characteristics).
SEX DISCRIMINATION	Any action which limits or denies a person or a group of persons opportunities, privileges, roles, or rewards on the basis of their sex.

SEX STEREOTYPING	Attributing behaviors, abilities, interests, values, and roles to a person or group of persons on the basis of their sex.
SEXISM	Any arbitrary stereotyping of males and females on the basis of their gender.
SEX-TYPED PROGRAMS	Programs which traditionally have 20% or less of either sex represented.
STEREOTYPE	A conventional, usually over-simplified, concept, opinion or belief that all individuals of one gender conform to one unvarying pattern relative to their behaviors, abilities, interests and values.
TITLE II	That portion of the Education Amendments of 1976 which relates specifically to vocational education and provides for the elimination of sex bias/stereotyping/discrimination in all federally assisted vocational education programs (Public Law 94-482).
TITLE IX	That portion of the Education Amendments of 1972 which prohibits discrimination in any education program or activity receiving Federal financial assistance (Public Law 92-318).
TITLE VII	The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 prohibits discrimination in employment practices because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.

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(6/7/79)

STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

SEX EQUITY POLICIES, PROCEDURES

V

STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
Occupational Education Division

Policies and Procedures Assuring Equal Access to Vocational Education Programs

Policies and procedures adopted by the State to insure the elimination of sex bias, sex stereotyping, and sex discrimination are as follows:

- All occupational education programs, services, and activities which are conducted in the State, whether or not they are federally funded, will be examined to insure that there is no discrimination against persons on the basis of sex, and that they are free of sex bias and stereotyping.

- Each local educational agency, board of cooperative educational services, and postsecondary institution shall inform the community which it services that criteria for admission in any occupational program or activity are available to students regardless of sex.

- Priority will be given to vocational guidance and counseling programs that provide a greater understanding of education and employment options open to all people, and are free of sex bias and stereotyping.

- Services will be supported for females and males who desire entry into programs designed to prepare them for employment in jobs which have been traditionally limited to the opposite sex. Special needs of women will be given high priority.

- Preparation and retraining of occupational education teachers at all levels will focus on the awareness and teaching methods that will eliminate sex bias and sex stereotyping.

- Written materials disseminated by the State and materials used locally to instruct, counsel, test or recruit students will be free of sex biased and stereotyped images, and will depict people functioning in a variety of roles.

- All occupational education institutions will have available an affirmative action plan, including realistic numerical goals and timetables, for the recruitment and promotion of women in vocational teaching, administrative and supervisory positions, with salaries and benefits equal to those of men holding the same positions.

Approved by: State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education
June 14, 1979

Subject to: Attorney General approved July, 1979

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STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

SEX EQUITY MISSION STATEMENT, GOALS

VI

STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION

SEX EQUITY
1979-80

MISSION STATEMENT

The Occupational Education Division of the State Board for Community Colleges and Occupational Education supports a coordinated activity plan which promotes equal access to and participation in vocational education throughout Colorado.

Goals:

I. To distribute reference booklets to all State staff, teacher educators and local administrators in an effort to effect positive change in awareness of sex bias/ stereotyping in student enrollments and employee data among students, teachers, counselors and other support staff in vocational education.

II. Implement a review system to assure that the elimination of sex stereotyping and sex bias are addressed in all vocational projects, grants, contracts, programs and other related activities.

III. Implement a system for the preparation and distribution of reports to appropriate agencies regarding information and activities about sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education, including current, successful, vocational education programs/ activities designed to reduce sex bias/stereotyping.

IV. Assist LEAs in developing action plans designed to effect positive measurable change in sex-typed programs.

V. To distribute legislation and resource material in an effort to increase awareness and monitor the implementation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination, sex bias and sex stereotyping.

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(5-31-79)

GOAL I: To distribute reference booklets to all State staff, teacher educators and local administrators in an effort to effect positive measurable change in awareness of strategies, models and activities which can be implemented by vocational and support staff to reduce sex bias/stereotyping in vocational programs

PLAN OF ACTION FOR Sex Equity 1979-80

Objectives & Action Plans Presented by Date: The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
A. Increase awareness of strategies, models and activities which may reduce SBS	1. Revise and disseminate Sex Equity reference booklets: a. Update 1) national and state data 2) Sex Equity Plan of Action 1979-80	Revised rough draft completed and disseminated to SEAC members, Exec. Comm., Program Sups. for review	SE. Sup. SEAC members, Exec. Comm., Prog. Sup's	June, 1979	No Direct Cost
	b. Add 1) resources available through SBCCOE 2) national resources 3) related legislation 4) Colorado successes 5) list of concerned organizations 6) Colorado resources 7) suggested policies and guidelines	Document disseminated via mailings and institutional visits (Supervisory, Sex Equity, et al)	Occ. Ed. Staff	June 1980	$1,500

-60-

Function 104.75 (a) Take action necessary to create awareness of programs and activities in vocational education designed to reduce sex bias and sex stereotyping in all vocational education programs, including assisting the State Board in publicizing the public hearings on the State Plan in accordance with Sec. 104.165(a).

GOAL I: Continued

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
A. Continued	2. Submit articles regularly to selected publications, featuring Colorado successes	a. Articles submitted to Insight regularly featuring Colorado successes	Sex Equity Sup., PR Task Force, Publication Specialist	July 1979	No Direct Cost
	3. Develop directory of nontraditional females and males in Colorado	a. Individuals identified and list established	Sex Equity Sup., Publication Specialist, LEAs, Program Supervisors, Better Jobs for Women and other interested community agencies	Nov. 1979	$500
		b. Publication disseminated		Jan. 1980	
B. Establish a system of coordination, communication and cooperation with other agencies and individuals responsible for implementing equity in education.	1. Identify responsible parties	List of agency representatives established	Sex Equity Sup.	May, 1979	No cost
	2. Submit to SEAC for input/review	Proposed system reviewed	LEAs, SEAC, Sex Equity Sup., UCD Rep., CDE Rep.	July 1979	$500
	3. Update annually	Communication network initiated	UCD, CDE	Sept. 1979	No cost
			GOAL I: Subtotal		$2,500

GOAL II: To establish a review system to assure the elimination of sex bias/stereotyping is addressed in all vocational projects, grants, contracts, programs and other related activities.

PLAN OF ACTION FOR Sex Equity 1979-80

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
A. Implement a process which includes established priorities and approval criteria for all projects funded by Occ. Ed. Div. (OED) to assure the needs of women are addressed	1. Develop priorities for 1980-81 in conjunction with RCU, Planning and SEAC	Priorities developed which include Sex Equity	Sex Equity Coord., Planners, RCU, SEAC	Jan. 30, 1980	No Direct Cost
	2. Develop approval criteria	Recommendations for priorities and approval criteria developed	Sex Equity Coord., RCU, Exec. Comm. SEAC	Jan. 30, 1980	No Direct Cost
	3. Participate in selection proposal process a. Provide written/oral orientation for review/ selection committee members b. Review and sign off on all selected proposals prior to final awarding	Participated in proposal selection process	Sex Equity Sup. and responsible parties	Ongoing	No Direct Cost

Function 104.75 (d) Review the distribution of grants and contracts by the State Board to assure that the interests and needs of women are addressed in all projects assisted under this Act.

GOAL II: Continued

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
B. Implement a review process to assure the elimination of sex bias/stereotyping are addressed in all vocational programs and activities funded by Occ. Ed. Div.	1. Develop sex equity supplement to be included in CPR manuals	Insert included in manual and available for inclusion in next printing	CPR Sup., Sex Equity Sup., Program Sup.	Nov. 30, 1979	No Direct Cost
	2. Develop and implement a process for review and recommendations to institutional plans	Process implemented	Sex Equity Sup., Planners, LEAs	May, 1979	No Direct Cost
	3. Five year schedule to visit each institution over five year period	Evaluation and technical assistance to LEA	Sex Equity Sup.	1/5 of Inst. in 1979-80	Travel--$3,000
			GOAL II: Subtotal		$3,000

Function 104.75 (e) Review all vocational education programs (including work study program, cooperative vocational education programs, apprenticeship programs, and the placement of students who have successfully completed vocational education programs) in the State for sex bias.

GOAL III: Implement a system for the preparation and distribution of reports to appropriate agencies regarding information and activities about sex bias/ stereotyping in vocational education, including current successful vocational programs/activities

PLAN OF ACTION FOR Sex Equity 1979-80

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
Establish a system for disseminating Sex Equity information to concerned agencies, organizations and individuals	1. Develop list and calendar	Procedure for dissemination established based on SEAC recommendations	SE Sup.	Oct. 1979	$500
	2. Investigate feasibility of extending distribution of Insight to non-ed community	Determination established	SE Sup, Pub. Spec.	July, 1979	$3,000
	3. Assist OFD staff in publicizing hearings of State Plan	Develop info. flyer for dissemination to interested parties: disseminate	SE Sup. Planners and AD	As scheduled	$200
			GOAL III: Subtotal		$3,700

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(h) Make available to the State Board, the State Advisory Council, the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, the State Commission on the Status of Women, the Commissioner, and the general public, including individuals and organizations in the State concerned about sex bias in vocational education, information developed under this section. (Sec. 104(b)(1); 20 U.S.C. 2304)

Function 104.75 (b) Gather, analyze, and disseminate data on the status of men and women students and employees in vocational education programs of the State.

GOAL IV: Provide assistance to LEAs in developing action plans designed to effect positive measurable change in sex-typed programs

PLAN OF ACTION FOR Sex Equity 1979-80

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
A. Increase awareness of materials and assistance available thru OED	1. List of resource materials available nationally and thru OED	Disseminated to LEAs thru OED staff	Sex Equity Sup. and OED staff	July 1979	See Goal I (A.1.b.)
B. Identify exemplary sex equity projects in Colorado	1. Review all institutional plans	All plans reviewed	Sex Equity Sup.	May 18, 1979	No Direct Cost
	2. Prepare list of exemplary Sex Equity programs, including location, contact person, brief overview	List disseminated	Sex Equity Sup., Planners, Prog. Sup.	Aug. 1979	No Direct Cost
	3. Identify five exemplary Sex Equity programs in Colorado	Exemplary Sex Equity programs promoted	Sex Equity Sup., Prog. Sup.	Sept. 1979	No Direct Cost
C. Visit one-fifth of total institutions which offer vocational education to provide assistance in implementing action plan.	1. Select site visits	Time, place special objective established	Sex Equity Sup. and Planners Local Directors/ Administrators	Attached Calendar	No cost
	2. Develop procedure for site visit	Written procedure developed		Aug. 1979	No cost
	3. Implement procedure	Visits completed	Sex Equity Sup.	June, 1980	$500

GOAL IV: Continued

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
D. To coordinate activities in sex equity thru teacher ed. institution	1. Develop a proposed procedure for involving teacher educators in implementing sex equity in teaching and administrative training	Proposal developed and reviewed by appropriate Task Force	Sex Equity Sup., UNC Repr. CSU Repr. and other Task Force members	Nov. 1979	$300
	2. Discuss proposal	Meet with UNC and CSU	SE Sup. VE Directors	Nov/Dec. 1979	No cost
	3. Revise, modify and implement	Implemented proposal	SE Sup. Teacher Educators	Feb. 1979	No cost
			GOAL IV: Subtotal		$800

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(g) Assist local educational agencies and other interested parties in the State in improving vocational education opportunities for women.

GOAL V: To distribute legislation and resource material in an effort to increase awareness and monitor the implementation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination, sex bias and sex stereotyping.

PLAN OF ACTION FOR Sex Equity 1979-80

Objectives & Action Plans The KEY RESULT TO BE ACHIEVED: WHAT, WHEN AND COST BENEFIT	Presented by Date: STEPS IN THE ACTION PLAN How to accomplish the Objective	(What will be the final product and how will it be measured) COMPLETION CRITERIA	RESPONSIBLE PARTY	Target Dates (Dates for Implementation and Completion)	BUDGET Estimates
A. Measurably increase awareness of laws prohibiting sex discrimination, sex bias and sex stereotyping.	1. Collect copies of laws - OCR-Federal Register - Title IX, Title VII - Court cases	Legislative references disseminated	Sex Equity Supervisor	June, 1979	$300
B. Establish procedures and resources to implement monitoring system	1. Establish criteria, processes, resources - Disseminate to vocational educators/ administrators	Written criteria Processes Resources	Sex Equity Supervisor	July, 1979	$300
C. Monitor required self-evaluations	1. Review the self-evaluation required by Title IX	Criteria established and used by Planners and Supervisors	Sex Equity Supervisor, Planners OED staff	See Goal IV. C	No Direct Cost
			GOAL V: Subtotal		$600

(f) Monitor the implementation of laws prohibiting sex discrimination in all hiring, firing, and promotion procedures within the State relating to vocational education.

(c) Develop and support actions to correct problems brought to the attention of this personnel through activities carried out under paragraph (b) and Sec. 104.76, including creating awareness of the Title IX complaint process.

(i) Review the self-evaluations required by Title IX.

(Implements Sec. 104(b)(1); 20 U.S.C. 2304)

SBCCOE - OE

1979-80 Sex Equity Site Schedule

September, 1979	25 Aurora Technical Center
	26 Adams-Arapahoe-Aurora School District 28J
	27 Adams County School District 14
	28 Westminster School District 50
October, 1979	23 CCD - North Campus
	24 Agate School District 300
	25 Bennett School District 29J
	26 Byers School District 32J
November, 1979	13 Douglas County School District RE1(J)
	14 Deer Trail School District 26J
	15 Elbert School District 200
	16 Elizabeth School District C-1
December, 1979	11 Englewood School District 1
	12 Kiowa School District C-2
	13 Arapahoe-Douglas County AVS
	14 Arapahoe Community College
January, 1980	23 Lewis-Palmer School District 38
	24 Strasburg School District 31J
	25 Sheridan School District 2
February, 1980	19 Denver School District 1
	20 CCD - Auraria
	21 Emily Griffith Opportunity School
	22 Jefferson County School District R-1
March, 1980	20 Laradon Hall Training Center
	21 School District 12 Vo Tech Center
April, 1980	22 Boulder Valley School District RE2(J)
	23 Boulder Vo-Tech Center
	24 Warren Occupational Tech. Center
	25 CCD - Red Rocks
May, 1980	6 Lookout Mountain School for Boys
	7 Platte Canyon School District 1
	13 Park County School District RE2
	14 Summit School District RE1
June, 1980	3 East Grand School District 2
	4 Clear Creek School District RE1
	5 West Grand School District 1J

36 on-site visits tentatively planned.

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VE DATA BY SEX

VII

COLORADO STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION DIVISION

Vocational Education Student Enrollments

	1978		1977		1976		1975	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
GRICULTURE	24% 1,245	76% 3,973	22% 1,224	78% 4,306	20% 1,291	80% 5,308	15% 864	85% 4,725
ARKETING AND DISTRIBUTION	55% 5,701	45% 4,730	51% 5,005	49% 4,857	48% 4,201	52% 4,557	48% 4,896	52% 5,227
EALTH	72% 6,300	28% 2,400	75% 6,514	25% 2,185	72% 6,200	28% 2,435	84% 4,053	16% 768
ONSUMER AND HOMEMAKING	76% 23,412	24% 7,559	77% 30,404	23% 8,851	75% 23,574	25% 7,770	76% 23,834	24% 7,526
AGE EARNING HOME ECONOMICS	78% 5,188	22% 1,441	75% 4,703	25% 1,549	77% 5,002	23% 1,508	77% 2,763	23% 836
USINESS AND OFFICE	80% 32,651	20% 8,385	77% 30,901	23% 9,106	75% 28,533	25% 9,299	77% 24,302	23% 7,458
ECHNICAL	15% 1,951	85% 11,149	11% 1,500	89% 11,585	10% 1,259	90% 11,286	9% 1,032	91% 10,224
RADES AND INDUSTRY	19% 5,289	81% 23,116	16% 4,816	84% 25,300	15% 4,348	85% 25,449	11% 2,580	89% 21,696
PECIAL PROGRAMS	42% 662	58% 915	43% 566	57% 755	37% 683	63% 1,156		

he above data indicates slight, but positive measurable increases of nontraditional students ntering Agriculture, Health, Technical and Trade & Industry programs. Similarly, Special rograms data indicates an increase in female enrollments. Marketing & Distributive Education rograms have maintained a nearly equal balance between females and males during these four years.

lthough Consumer & Homemaking has established several local programs which exemplify sex equity, he overall state data indicates negligible change.

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STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION DIVISION

Full-time Vocational Staff Information

	1978		1977	
	Female	Male	Female	Male
Agriculture	4%	96%	2%	98%
	6	135	3	142
Marketing and Distribution	20%	80%	19%	81%
	27	106	26	108
Health	90%	10%	91%	9%
	167	18	159	16
Home Economics	94%	6%	94%	6%
	391	24	386	27
Business & Office	66%	34%	65%	35%
	432	224	419	223
Technical	3%	97%	3%	97%
	6	208	7	197
Trades & Industry	8%	92%	8%	92%
	43	525	45	533
Curriculum Development		100%		100%
	0	3	0	3
Administration	14%	86%	14%	86%
	17	103	17	104
Guidance	13%	87%	24%	76%
	4	26	8	25
Job Development	13%	87%	18%	82%
	2	14	3	14
Handicapped	41%	59%	38%	62%
	49	72	43	71

The above data indicates the largest positive measurable increases (2%) in nontraditional staff employed in agriculture programs and those serving handicapped students.

Guidance female staff has declined from 77-78 and this area represents the greatest negative percentage shift.

Home Economics, Technical, Trade and Industry programs together with areas of Curriculum Development and Administration indicate no measurable shifts during these two years.

There is a significant lack of nontraditional vocational education staff in most programmatic areas.

STATE BOARD FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND OCCUPATIONAL EDUCATION
Occupational Education Division
Vocational Education Administration

I. Credentialed Vocational Administrators

	Female	Male	Totals
Credentialed Local Directors	34(13%)	226(87%)	260
Credentialed Assistant Local Directors	8(14%)	48(86%)	56

II. Practicing Local Vocational Administrators (Credentialed):

Area Vocational Technical Schools	0		
Community Colleges	0		
Secondary	2		
Total	2(3%)	58(97%)	60

Others:

State Advisory Council for Vocational Education

- Executive Director	0(0%)	1	1
Credentialing Officers	0(0%)	2	2
Administrative - Teacher Education	0(0%)	2	2
Teacher Education Administrative	0(0%)	2	2
SBCCOE* - Functioning in Agency Administration	0(0%)	4	4
	0(0%)	11	11
	2	69	71
	3%	97%	100%

Note: Based on MIS Data, 5/79

* Credentialed Administrators on SBCCOE Staff			
Credentialed Local Directors	3(15%)	17(85%)	20

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